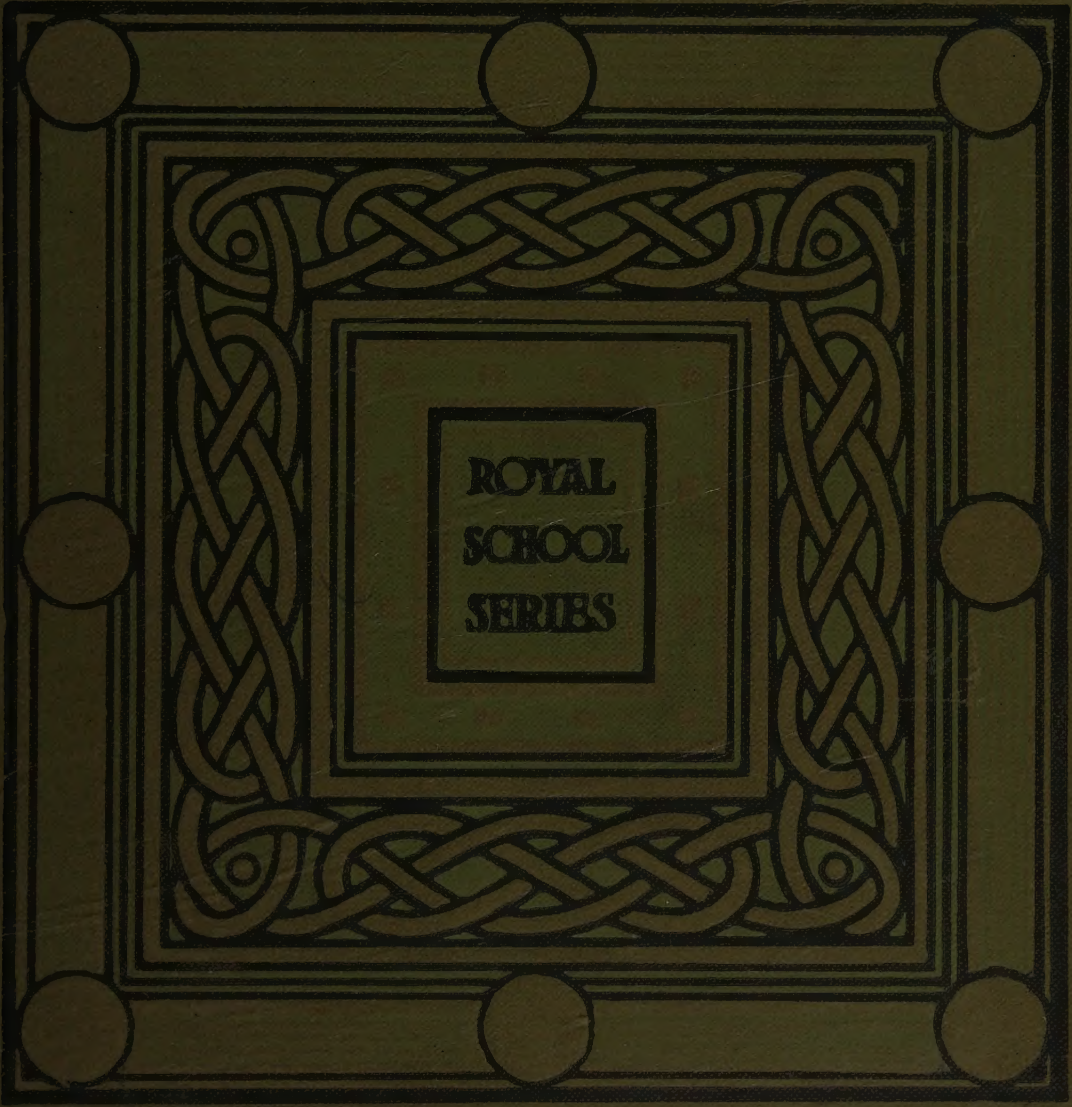
# HIGHROADS OF HISTORY

## ALLIES, FOES, and NEUTRALS



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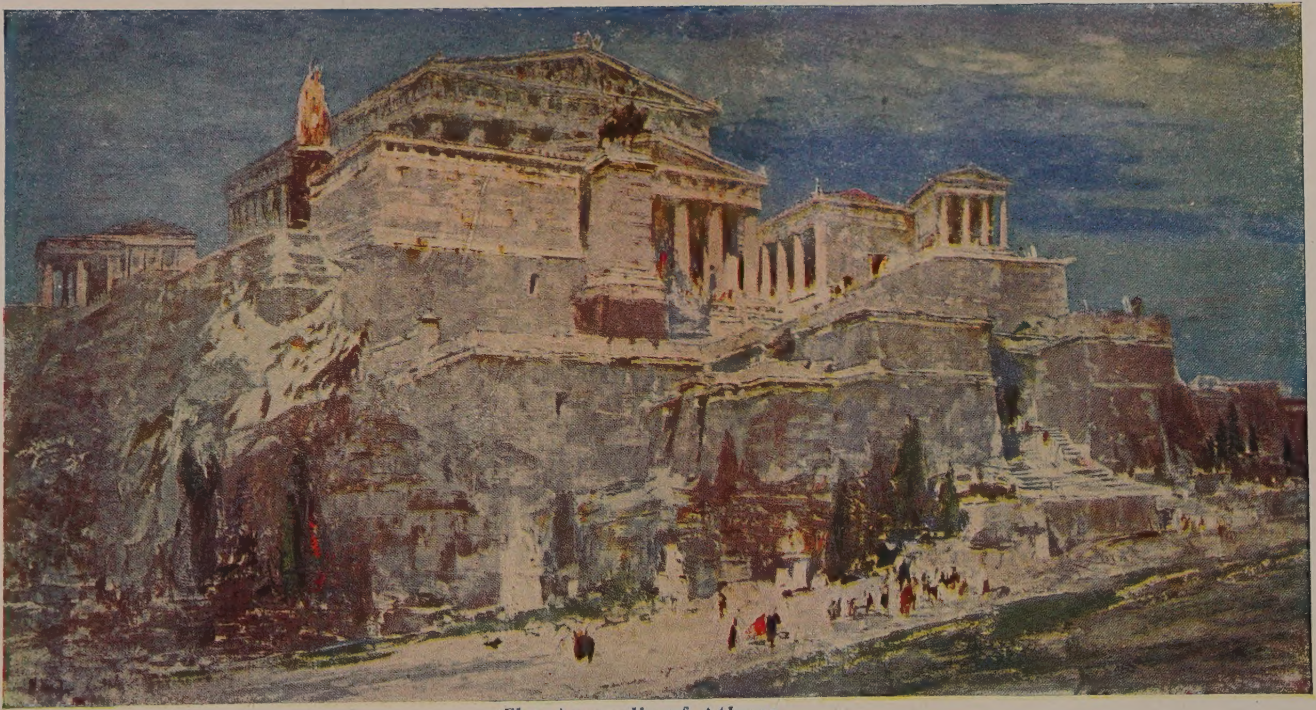
# ALLIES, FOES, AND NEUTRALS



**The Acropolis of Athens.**

(*From the painting by William Walcot.*)

The hill of the Acropolis, which rises from the Attic plain within sight of the sea, was originally the citadel of Athens. It was regarded as sacred, and on it were the grave and shrine of the ancestor of the Athenians. In the days of Pericles it was covered with white marble temples and statues, beautiful in design and exquisite in execution, sparkling like alabaster in the sun. No city of the ancient or modern world has ever possessed such triumphs of art. It was the glory of Athens, and may be said to typify that love of beauty and passion for perfection which the Greeks handed on to succeeding ages as an undying inspiration.

*THE HIGHROADS SERIES*

# Allies, Foes, and Neutrals

## A FIRST SKETCH OF EUROPEAN HISTORY FROM THE AGE OF PERICLES TO THE EVE OF THE GREAT WAR

BY

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# Allies, Foes, and Neutrals.

## *A BRIEF SKETCH OF EUROPEAN HISTORY.*

### 1. WHY WE SHOULD STUDY EUROPEAN HISTORY.

A BRITISH statesman once said that our little wars were given us to teach us geography. He referred chiefly to those expeditions which we are forced from time to time to send against unruly frontier tribes in India and other parts of our wide Empire. The Great War, which swept into its welter of bloodshed no fewer than fifteen European states, not only taught us much geography, but turned our thoughts, almost for the first time, to the history of the nations dwelling beyond the Narrow Seas. It has long been a reproach to us that, like Gallio, we cared for none of these things.

Why, as a nation, have we given so little attention to the history of continental nations? Chiefly, of course, because we live in an island home, cut off from the mainland of Europe by an expanse of sea which in former times ensured us against invasion on a large scale. In our "right little, tight little island" we dwelt in a world apart, and being a seafaring nation, we naturally turned our faces to the western ocean, which was to be our great highway to the ends of the earth. As far back as the fifteenth century we learnt to our cost that the winning of territory on the continent of Europe was not for us. After centuries of strife for dominion in France we failed completely, and by the time that the last shred of French soil was reft from us we had discovered that our proper sphere of expansion lay in distant lands which we could reach by way of the sea.

After we began to lay the foundations of our overseas empire, we were brought into conflict with European nations from time to time, but never for the purpose of winning territory in Europe. We fought with them for a variety of reasons—because we were threatened with invasion, because our ocean-borne trade was hampered, because the family affairs of the foreign kings whom we placed on our throne involved us in their quarrels, because we feared that certain continental sovereigns would become so powerful that we should suffer eclipse, or because our colonial empire was endangered. For these and similar reasons we sent armies to the Continent, and though we frequently won brilliant victories, we annexed no provinces.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, when we became the greatest manufacturing nation of the globe, all our thoughts were given to industry and commerce. You know that in the midst of a life-and-death struggle ordinary production and trade almost come to a standstill. Millions of men are forced to abandon the mine, the factory, and the field for the work of war, and most of those who remain are engaged in manufacturing instruments of destruction. So many ships are needed for the transport of the army, its munitions and provisions, that only a small number are available for carrying on ordinary trade. Every industry that is not absolutely necessary for the existence of the nation or for the conduct of war is either suppressed or reduced to narrow limits. The supply of raw materials is largely cut off, and the Government needs so much of the nation's money that manufactures and trade are robbed of their life-blood. You can easily understand that industry and commerce can only flourish in times of peace.

In the early nineteenth century, when British manufactures were eagerly sought for in every quarter of the globe, our great concern was to keep out of foreign warfare. After we had cut short the career of the man who but for us would have made himself lord and master of Europe, the British nation became more and more convinced that peace was its best policy. Powerful writers and speakers taught us that we ought to have as little as possible to do with foreign politics. Our business was to give our undivided attention and our best energies to the improvement of our own people and to the development of our own resources, and to avoid, like the plague, any course of action which would bring us into conflict with continental nations. It was thought that we should thus be a beacon to other states, warning them of rocks and shoals, and pointing out the fair-way of national happiness and prosperity. By holding ourselves aloof from the internal affairs of continental peoples we were not only benefiting ourselves but were aiding foreign nations far more than we could possibly do by plunging into any strife in which they might be engaged.

Now I think you begin to understand why, as a nation, we have in the past paid so little attention to European history. But, as you know, the times have changed. In the course of the Great War we allied ourselves in Europe with France, Belgium, Portugal, Italy, Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, Albania, Rumania, and Russia. British troops fought shoulder to shoulder with the men of these nations on many a battlefield, and learned to know them. The alliance thus formed in war may or may not continue in peace; but at all events we have been brought into close touch with these nations, and are stimulated to learn something of their history. In the case of our chief foe—Germany—we are deeply interested to know how she became a mighty military state, so filled with the lust of empire that, with the aid of Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria, she staked everything on a gigantic gamble for the supremacy of the world. We are interested, too, in the story of the neutrals—Spain, Switzerland, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden—the nations which, though spectators of the vast struggle, went in constant danger of being swept into it.

Besides this natural interest which has been awakened by the war, there is another reason why we should be well acquainted with the past and present history of the European peoples. Britain can no longer be regarded as an island enringed by a "green, inviolate girdle." No longer can she deem herself secure in what an old Welsh poet calls her "green water fort." During the Great War the new powers of the air were developed to such an extent that the Narrow Seas formed no bar to invasion. Aerial raids were frequent and destructive, and London became a city on the Western front. Now that aeroplanes and airships can overleap the moat of the water fort, and swoop upon us with great suddenness, we are forced to concern ourselves more than ever with the doings of our continental neighbours, and are bound to watch closely those relations of state to state which might again bring about war.

* * * * * * *

In this book you will read in broad outline how the nations of continental Europe grew from small, confused beginnings into their present condition, and how they came to occupy the territory which they held when the Great War broke out. The story is vast and intricate, and extends over more than three thousand years. As a whole library is necessary to deal fully with the history of any one of these nations, you can easily understand that only the most striking landmarks can be indicated in these pages. It is hoped that the reading of this book will so interest you that in after years you will turn with pleasure to the many great and worthy works in which the story of each European country is set down in detail.

## 2. ATHENS IN ITS PRIME.

THE history of civilized Europe begins with the story of a small city in a small country whose eastern and southern shores, washed by the Midland Sea, look towards Asia and Egypt, the earliest homes of civilization. It was in this small but very favourably situated land of Greece that the men of Europe first learned to live in cities, to make laws, to establish governments, to grow rich by trade, and to devote themselves to the cultivation of their minds and their sense of beauty. Five hundred years before the birth of Christ the land of Greece was the abode of a nation which stands out in the course of history as having done most of all to turn the thoughts of men towards knowledge, art, letters, and gracious modes of living.

The Greeks spoke and wrote a language which has never been surpassed for beauty and ease of expression; and they produced thinkers, statesmen, orators, playwrights, poets, and prose writers, whose works have served as models for all succeeding generations. All great cities of the Western world show the influence of ancient Greece even to-day. In our high schools and universities the Greek language is taught, and the works of the great Greek writers are studied. Many of our noblest buildings are of Greek design, and our finest pieces of sculpture strive to imitate the masterpieces of Greek art.

Many of the words which we use in the council chamber or in Parliament were first invented by the Greeks. The *politicians* who govern the country, the *policy* or course of action which they pursue, and the *police* who keep peace and order in our streets, derive the name that describes them from the Greek word for a city (*polis*). The period of Greek greatness only extended over two hundred years, but while it lasted it was so rich in achievement that its influence will continue to flow through the world like a fertilizing river as long as men desire knowledge and love to create and admire beautiful things. For this reason I propose to tell you the story of Greece somewhat fully.

* * * * * * *

When we think of Greece our thoughts turn at once to Athens, its chief city. About the year 450 B.C. Greece was at the summit of its power and prosperity, and Athens was the most famous and the most beautiful city of the world. It stood then, as now, about three miles from the seacoast in the central plain of Attica, which is enclosed by mountains on every side except the south, where it is open to the sea. In the southern part of the plain rise several abrupt heights, one of which, Mount Lycabettus, is to Athens what Arthur's Seat is to Edinburgh. South-west of Lycabettus there are four lesser heights, the highest of which is a craggy square rock rising sharply from the plain to the height of about one hundred and fifty feet. This is the Acropolis, the heart of Athens, as Athens was the heart of Greece.

Immediately west of the Acropolis is a second hill of irregular form known as Areopagus, or Mars' Hill. It was upon this hill that St. Paul preached some five hundred years later, as described in the seventeenth chapter of the Acts of the Apostles. You will remember that the Greeks were eager to hear all about his "new doctrine," and that "the Athenians and strangers which were there spent their time in nothing else, but either to tell or to hear some new thing."

In its golden age Athens was a busy and crowded city of about 200,000 inhabitants, the bulk of whom were slaves. So full of life and activity was it that visitors from Asia compared it with an ant's nest. The houses were packed close together, and the streets and public places were always thronged with people, buying and selling, on their way to the markets or to the public games or places of assembly. So pure was the air and so lovely the climate that the people lived chiefly out of doors. They worshipped, made laws, carried on the government, saw plays, studied and debated, all under the open sky. The city was a noisy place; the creaking of wagons, the lowing of oxen, the shouts of passers-by, and the voices of peasants crying their vegetables, fruit, or poultry, kept up a constant din.

Athens was at this time a great commercial and manufacturing city, full of keen-witted traders. Her chief port, the Piræus, was within easy distance, and was joined to the city by a road running between what were called the "Long Walls." The port was crowded with shipping, for the shipowners of Athens were then the sea-carriers of the Mediterranean world. Between the walls passed wagon after wagon laden with merchandise, corn from the shores of the Black Sea, and raw materials for manufacture. Athenian woollen goods and artistic wares of terra-cotta or metal were eagerly

INTERIOR OF THE HOUSE OF A RICH ATHENIAN.

(*From the picture by Sir Alma Tadema, R.A.*)

sought after by the people of Italy, Gaul, and North Africa, and Athens carried on a rich trade with the people of these countries. The Athenians spoke of them as "barbarians," not because they considered them uncouth and uncivilized, but because they "babbled" in a strange and rude form of speech. Another source of profit was the traffic in slaves. In the slave market of Athens might be seen many a captive barbarian, his feet chalked to indicate that he came from overseas.

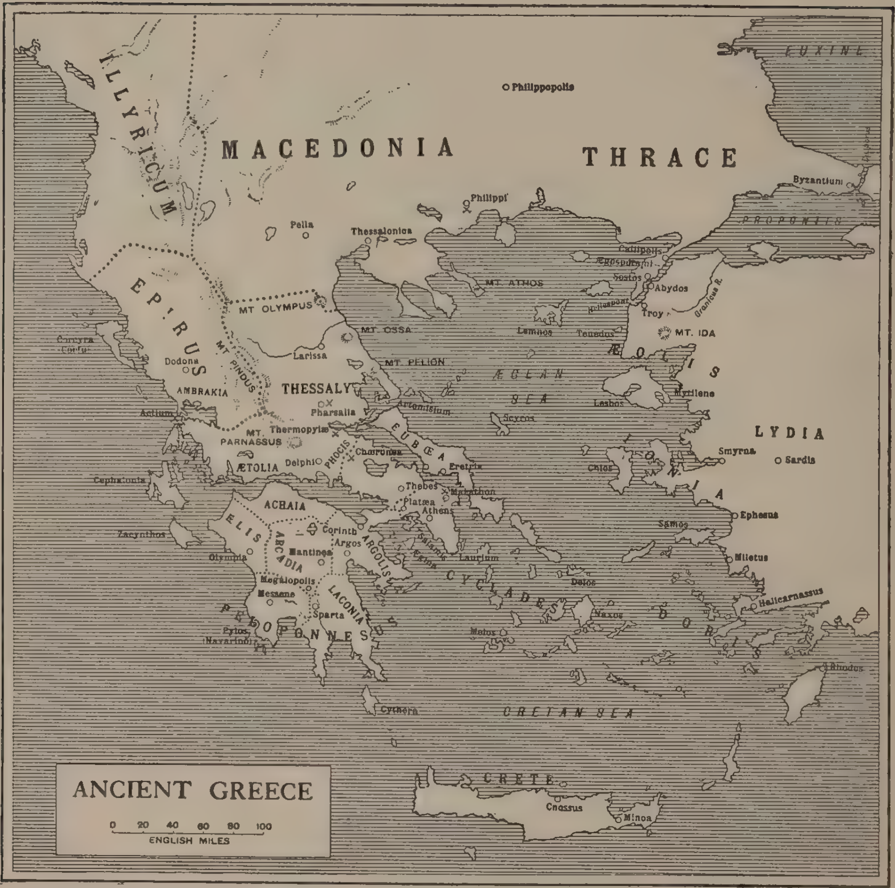
Now let us turn our attention to the Acropolis. Formerly this hill was the citadel of Athens, the stronghold of its first inhabitants. In the time of which I am speaking it was the glory of the city, and was almost entirely covered by marble temples and statues, which gleamed dazzling white in the transparent clearness of the air. At the western end, where alone the hill could be ascended, stood the Propylæa, or entrance halls, consisting of a flight of marble steps, seventy feet broad, leading up to a double colonnade, through which the visitor entered the Acropolis. On either side were other beautiful buildings and colonnades. On the northern side was a chamber the walls of which were painted with wonderful pictures.

Beyond the Propylæa stood a huge bronze statue to Athene, the goddess of wisdom and the guardian of the city. The great sculptor Phidias had lavished all his art upon this statue, which was more than fifty feet in height, and was raised twenty feet higher still by its pedestal, until it overtopped the temple roofs. The goddess wore a helmet with a golden plume, which could be seen far out at sea, and formed a well-known landmark to sailors navigating the Gulf of Ægina. She carried a shield on her left arm, and in her right hand held an outstretched spear. A neighbouring temple, however, contained the most revered statue of the goddess. It was an effigy of wood, ages old, and carved out of a holy olive tree which was said to have sprouted again after it had been felled by the axe of an invader.

Beyond the statue stood the Parthenon, the largest and most glorious of all the temples on the Acropolis. It was an outward and visible sign of the greatness of Athens. Genius and money were lavished on it. Nothing so beautiful and costly has ever been seen, before or since, in the history of the world. Perfect in form, brilliant with rich paintings and adorned with mouldings and carvings, it was the most superb example of architecture produced by the Greeks. The gable-ends and pediments supported large pieces of sculpture of marvellous beauty; the square spaces above the capitals of the columns and beneath the edge of the roof were filled with carvings representing the battles of ancient heroes. The upper portion of the wall of the outer colonnade was traced with graceful figures, showing the priests, magistrates, knights, and maidens in procession on Athene's great day of festival. Phidias covered more than four thousand feet of surface with carvings of this character. Within the temple, however, was his most gorgeous work—a huge figure of Athene in ivory and gold. Her robes alone contained forty talents weight of gold (£9,750), and her armour was studded with precious stones. But, after all, its great value lay not in its costliness, but in the supreme genius with which the great sculptor had wrought it.

The Acropolis was thus a great gallery of national art of the loveliest and finest kind. No Athenian could visit it and study it without rejoicing in its beauty and finding his taste uplifted. But the Acropolis did not alone contain all the beautiful buildings of Athens. At the foot of its south-eastern cliff stood the Odeum, with a roof said to be copied from the vast and gorgeous tent of Xerxes, the Persian king who had invaded Greece in the year 480, but whose fleet had been destroyed by the Athenians at Salamis. This building was used for musical performances. Elsewhere there were open-air theatres; the Agora, or great market-place, with its triumphal archway and bronze statue of Hermes; the Stadium, in which were held the athletic games in which the Greeks rejoiced; and numerous other public buildings and temples. In the port of Piræus stood a huge corn hall and an exchange for merchants. Never was there a city so adorned with architecture, statuary, and paintings of such noble design, such perfect execution, and such faultless taste.

During the Persian invasion, Athens, then a small, quiet country town, had been abandoned by nearly all its people, and



ANCIENT GREECE

had been burnt to the ground. Now it was the noblest city on earth. Its glory was due chiefly to one man, the great outstanding figure in the Greece of his day, the uncrowned king of Athens. He was Pericles, soldier, statesman, and orator, a man of lofty character, high talent, and pure patriotism.

## 3. THE AGE OF PERICLES.

PERICLES was born about the year 490, of parents belonging to one of the noblest and wealthiest families of Greece. His father had played a large part in Athenian affairs, and the son was trained for a public life in all the studies and manly arts of the times. During his youth Greece was in grave danger of falling under the Persian yoke; but happily she was saved by the courage, enterprise, and resolution of the Athenians. A great sea-fight was fought, in which the Persian fleet was so badly beaten that Xerxes decided to abandon the campaign. When the Persians were finally conquered, Pericles was eleven years of age.

Two years later the people of the Greek islands and of many towns on the coast of Asia Minor and Thrace joined a league with Athens at its head. The object of this league was to keep the Persians out of the Ægean Sea. Each state in the league had either to contribute ships and men, or money to provide them. Finally, in order to avoid trouble, the states agreed to contribute only money, and the business of keeping up a fleet was left to Athens. At first the money paid for this purpose was kept at Delos; but when Pericles was thirty-one years of age it was removed to Athens, and stored in the Parthenon, outside which was an inscription setting forth the amount which each member of the league was required to pay.

When Athens was saved by its fleet, all classes, rich and poor alike, served on board the ships. The poor played an equal part with the rich in saving the state, and they now began to claim a larger share in the government than they had formerly enjoyed. The Conservative party in the state disliked change, and only yielded to the people's wishes grudgingly and of necessity. About the year 469 B.C. Pericles became the leader of the people's party—that is, of those who wished to see all citizens, whatever their birth, rank, station, or wealth, enjoying equal rights and equal opportunities.

Pericles was an aristocrat with the blood of despots in his veins, yet he soon became the idol of the people. He was a man of grave and noble presence, who rarely smiled, and seldom showed himself except on public occasions. His followers respected and loved him, and the whole population was strongly moved by his lofty eloquence. Thus, for example, did he comfort those who mourned for relatives and friends who fell in the wars, and stimulate the young to follow their heroic example :—

"*They are become immortal like the gods, for the gods themselves are not visible to us; but from the honours which they receive and from the happiness which they enjoy, we conclude that they are immortal, and such should be those brave men who die for their country.*"

Pericles sincerely believed in self-government by the people. He thought that the Athenians, even the poorest of them, might be made so intelligent by education, by listening to the speeches in the Assembly, by acting as jurymen in trials, and by taking part in the daily affairs of the city, that they would be capable of governing themselves and their empire better than any small body of nobles or rich men. He also believed that "every Athenian should owe to his city the blessing of an education in all that was beautiful, and the opportunity of a happy and useful life."

He was able to carry out this policy because he had the spending of the taxes levied on the people and the tribute paid by the allies. During the long peace which followed the Persian wars there was no need to spend on the navy all the money which the allies contributed. In strict justice he should have given the surplus back to the allies, or should have saved it for the needs of a future war. But he held that so long as Athens fulfilled her contract and kept the Persian ships from the shores of Greece, the Athenians could do as they wished with the balance. Thus the free gifts of the allies came to be regarded as tribute.

Some of the money he spent in adorning the city and in erecting those temples, theatres, and public places of assembly which I have described. He also set aside money for the purpose of encouraging painters, poets, sculptors, playwrights, scholars, and men of letters. So that all might attend the theatres when plays were acted, he provided that every citizen should receive from the state the price of admission. He also caused the public spectacles to be made more frequent and more splendid than they had ever been before, and gave money to the citizens so that they might eat, drink, and be merry on these joyful occasions.

Athens under his rule became a vast workshop, in which employment was found for a great number of citizens. There were industries of olive-oil, red and black pottery, and silver ware made from the ore of Mount Laurium, in Attica. A large fleet was maintained, and for eight months in each year sixty ships with full crews were kept at sea. All the law cases of the empire were tried in Athens, and large numbers of jurymen were needed for the trials. These jurymen, or *dicasts*, numbered thousands, and all received payment. All citizens were liable to be called upon to take part in public business, and in order that they could do so they received money from the public purse. In this way it was thought that every citizen would acquire a knowledge of law and politics, and thus rise to a level of intelligence far above that which obtained in the other states of Greece. The enemies of Pericles declared that his laws made the Athenians idle, over-fond of talk and money. They said that he had encouraged the people to hang about the Pnyx, or place of assembly, to haunt the law courts, to practise public speaking, and to think that they ought to be paid for performing even the simplest duties of citizenship.

Athens in her golden prime was thus the best example ever furnished by history of a democracy—that is, of a government of the people by the people and for the people. They did not make laws as we do to-day by means of members of parliament chosen to represent them. Every citizen had a right to go to the Pnyx, and act as his own member of parliament. He could speak if he wished, or he could be silent and listen to the contending speakers or to the ambassadors who came from foreign lands. When both sides had been fairly heard, he could give his vote, and thus directly make the laws by which he was governed. Of course such a system was only possible in a small town where the free men could gather in one place. Even so it was not full popular government; for the strangers who dwelt in Athens, many thousands of slaves, and the women, had no part or lot in making the laws or ruling the city.

I have already referred to the empire of Athens. In the time of Pericles Athens was by far the most powerful state of Greece. She was the head of a league of states, and the mistress of the Grecian seas. The rich pastures of the neighbouring Eubœa were hers; the fairest lands on the coast of Asia Minor, and the richest islands in between, yielded her tribute. Her vessels were seen in every port of the Mediterranean, and she had founded colonies wherever her ships could sail. With plentiful riches, she became the most beautiful city of the world, and drew to herself all those who by intellect, skill, or handicraft could minister to her prosperity and love of beauty.

Such was Athens in her palmiest days. In the following lessons we shall learn how she rose to this height of splendour, and how she fell into decline, ruin, and the basest of bondage. But even to this day she remains a city of wondrous charm to all who study her literature and history.

*Read:* "Tales of Athens," from Havell's *Stories from Greek History* retold from Herodotus (Harrap).

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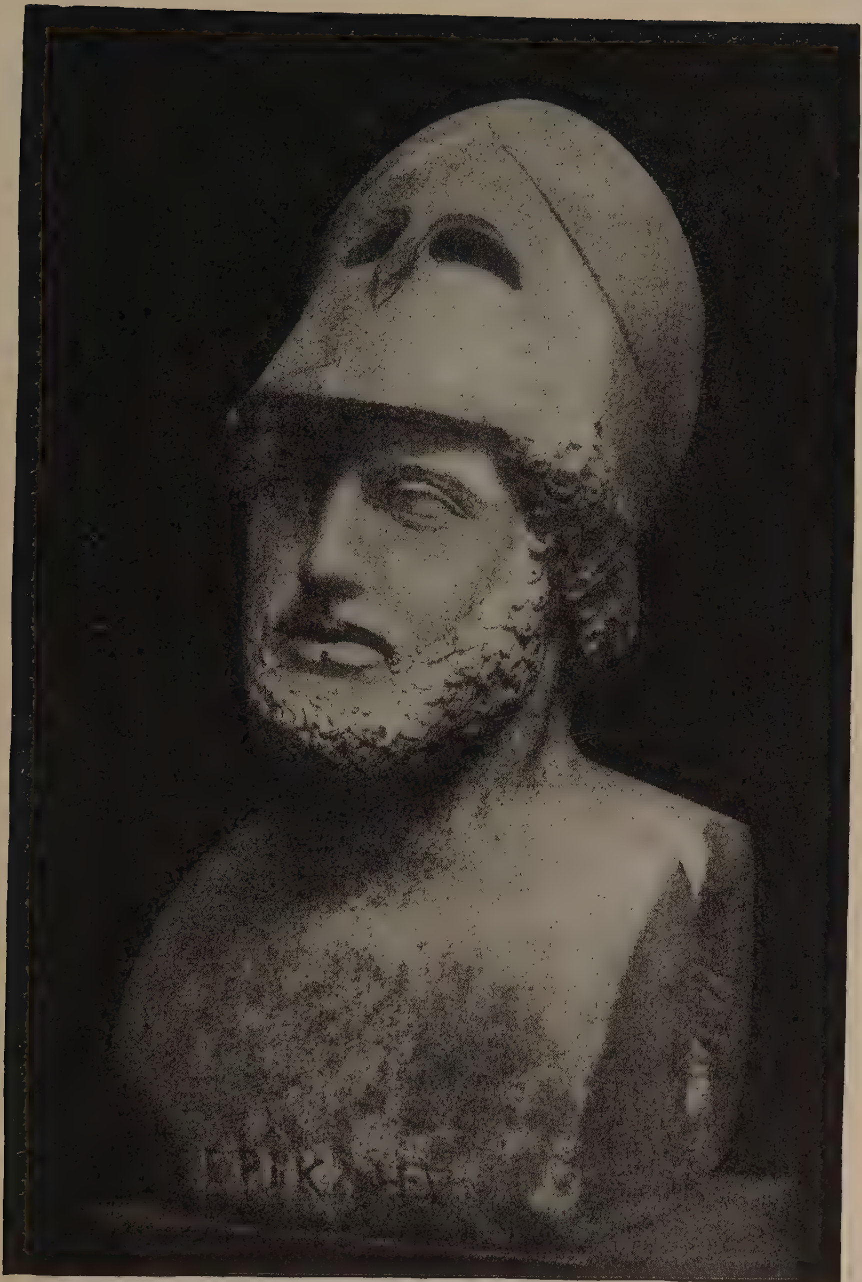
## 4. THE BEGINNINGS OF GREECE.

In the preceding lesson you witnessed the surprising spectacle of a highly civilized city on the eastern edge of a continent in which the bulk of men were either hunters, cattle-breeders, or rude tillers of the soil. Naturally you are interested to learn how it came about that this city-state rose to such a height of civilization at a time when most of the European peoples were low in the scale. First we must remember that the Greeks lived in a land which, though it gives no marked advantage to its inhabitants at the present time,



BUST OF PERICLES.

was very favourable to their development in the far-off days when communication was difficult, and when men were almost always at war with each other.

Let us look for a moment at the geography of Greece, or Hellas, as it was known to its own people. It is, as you know, a sub-peninsula of the Balkan Peninsula. It is deeply indented by bays and gulfs, and, except for a few plains near the coast, is a land of huge and bare mountains. The country is nearly cleft in two by the Gulf of Corinth and the Gulf of Ægina ; the two portions are connected only by a land bridge, three and a half miles wide. So deeply is Greece penetrated by the sea that there are few places from which a short walk will not bring you to salt water. The broken coast of the northern portion is skirted by islands, and there are many fine harbours. Between the eastern coast of Greece and the western coast of Asia Minor there are many other fruitful and beautiful islands which serve as stepping-stones between Europe and Asia.

The wisest men of olden days used to say that all good things had come out of salt water. The good things of Greece certainly came from the sea. Because the sea was so near, the Greeks early became seafarers, traders, explorers, and colonists. From the earliest times they had a passion for travel. If you look carefully at the map you will notice that the main peninsulas and islands of Greece stretch towards Asia; that the harbours on the eastern coast are larger and better sheltered than those on the west; and that the plains on which cities can be built are mostly on the side looking towards Asia. The Greeks were thus, as it were, invited to push eastward, and early in their history they began to cross to and fro the almost land-locked waters which lay between them and Ionia. They were thus brought into touch with Asia, and as they grew bolder and more skilful they sailed to all parts of the Midland Sea.

Before the rise of the Greeks the chief trading nations of Asia were the Babylonians and the Phœnicians. The city of Babylon, on the Lower Euphrates, near to the Persian Gulf, was the great centre of trade between Eastern Asia and Western Asia, and was also in touch with Africa. Babylon herself was a great manufacturing city, as well as an emporium of trade. By means of her ships and her caravans she distributed her wares far and wide. When the Greeks first began voyaging to and fro to Asia Minor, they came into contact by means of trade with the highly civilized men of Babylon, and, being a quick-witted race, were not slow to learn what the Babylonians could teach them. You must always remember that foreign trade is the handmaid of civilization.

The Greeks did not come directly into contact with the Babylonians. The go-between was that famous race of sea-carriers and traders known as the Phœnicians, who dwelt in Tyre and its sister cities along the coast of Syria, which blocks up the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea. The Phœnicians exported wares and manufactures of their own, especially cloth fabrics coloured with the famous Tyrian red dye, and glass ware; and they imported and exported the products of every region east and south of their land—spices from Arabia; ivory, ebony, and cotton-goods from India; corn and linen yarn from Egypt; wool and wine from Damascus; carpets, curtains, fine muslins, gems, and jewels from Babylon; horses and chariots from Armenia; copper from the shores of the Black Sea; lead from Spain, and tin from Cornwall. When the Phœnicians began to trade with Greece they opened the eyes of the Greeks to the wonders and achievements of the Eastern world, and thus set them on the road to develop their own powers and resources. It was from the Phœnicians that the Greeks received their alphabet, which came originally from Egypt. Early in their history they learned the art of writing, and thus were enabled to set down their thoughts, and develop that literature which, within its limits, has never been equalled.

Had the Greeks been a dull and stupid people, they would have profited nothing by this contact with civilization. They were, however, the most capable people of early times. They belonged to that stock which included all the great nations of Europe, but they were ahead of their fellows in ability and enterprise. While their nearness to the sea brought them in contact with the civilization of the East, the character of their land prevented them from being overrun by barbarians. The ranges of mountains which cross Greece from east to west form barriers which for hundreds of years could not be forced by an enemy marching overland. Hellas has been likened to a series of chambers, the doors of which were strongly bolted ; it was difficult to get in, but more difficult to get out again. Greek civilization owed much to this natural protection against the inroads of those who might otherwise have conquered the people and reduced them to slavery.

Now, because Greece was so much cut up by mountains, and communication by land was difficult, it did not become one unified country—such as England became early in its history—but was parcelled up into a number of little independent states. In a space smaller than an English county there might be several independent cities, each with its own army, which might be no more numerous than a single British regiment. These states were sometimes at war, sometimes at peace, and sometimes, as you read in the former lesson, in league against a foreign foe. When we first hear of the Greeks they were broken up into groups of this kind all over European Greece and the islands near it. On the coast of Asia Minor there were races who were akin to them.

At first the Greeks lived a simple, homely, country life. The rich men owned flocks and herds, corn lands and villages, while the poor had allotments of their own, or worked as labourers for the rich. We know a good deal about these early times from the two great poems which were composed long before the Greeks knew the art of writing, and were handed down from father to son. The Greeks believed that they were the work of a single poet named Homer, though nowadays scholars think that many bards had a hand in producing them. These poems are full of fairy tales, but nevertheless there is a great deal of genuine history in them. One of the poems, known as the *Iliad*, relates the story of Troy, and tells us in detail the wonderful adventures of the heroes who took part in the ten years' siege. The site of Troy has been discovered and unearthed, and there is no doubt that the poem is based on actual fact, though it is full of all sorts of imaginary marvels. It is now believed that the Trojan War was fought to open up the passage of the Black Sea, so that the corn ships might come and go freely. A great Greek historian tells us that it was the first common enterprise of the Greeks, and that they could not unite for this expedition until they had become sailors.

The other poem, the *Odyssey*, describes the wanderings and adventures of Odysseus, or Ulysses, king of the island of Ithaca, a man of great wisdom and deep cunning. From this poem we learn much about the simple farm life of the Greeks in early days, and of the marvellous voyages which Odysseus and his friends made. Very likely these stories were the "tall tales" of Greek seamen when they returned home after visiting neighbouring lands. The story of the Argonauts and the Golden Fleece shows that the Greek sailors explored the shores of the Euxine, or Black Sea, and other legends indicate that they pushed westward beyond Sicily to the Straits of Gibraltar.

From these poems we obtain sufficient information to give us a good idea of the government of the various Greek groups in early times. At the head of each tribe or nation was a king, who acted as priest, war-leader, judge, and president of the assembly of the people. He was supported and guided by a council of elders, and when he died his eldest son, or his eldest son's son, reigned in his stead. We find rich landowners forming the highest class; bards, priests, prophets, surgeons, and skilled artisans forming the middle class; below them a class of hired workmen; and finally, a body of slaves who were not harshly treated. War between the states was almost always going on, and the skilled and powerful warrior was most highly esteemed. The men married one wife, and women were held in high regard. They specially cared for the young, and reverenced the old. They did not drink to excess, like the northern nations. They worshipped many gods, to whom they offered sacrifices of slaughtered animals and bowls of wine, and they believed that their bravest and best men became gods when they died.

You must not imagine that their kings were men of great might and majesty, such as the Persian Xerxes, who was mentioned in the former lesson. A Greek king more nearly resembled a baron of the Middle Ages, with large and small farmers, ploughmen, labourers, shepherds, swineherds, goatherds, and smiths on his estates. The towns were little more than large villages. In Homeric times the chief work of the Greeks was agriculture. Their wagons were drawn by mules, and their chariots by horses. In warfare they carried a shield, and wore helmet, breastplate, and greaves as protection. Their weapons were the sword, spear, javelin, and axe, and their artillery consisted of huge stones hurled on the advancing foe. In the Homeric poems we read of coppersmiths, carpenters, and shipbuilders; of women spinning and weaving clothing, carpets and rugs of flax and wool, and making embroidery. On their tables were found beef and mutton, bread and cheese. Milk and wine were chiefly drunk.

In recent times it has been discovered that the island of Crete was the seat of a high civilization long before Greece was anything more than an agricultural and pastoral country. The Greek historian to whom I have already referred tells us that Minos, King of Crete, was the first to establish a navy. This Minos was said by the early Greeks to be a just and powerful king, who put down pirates, and when he died was appointed by the gods as judge over the souls of the dead. Probably you have heard the story of the Minotaur, the savage beast with a man's body and a bull's head, that lurked in a labyrinth on the island and was fed upon Athenian youths and maidens who were sent to him as tribute. This fairy tale probably arose from the fact that the great sport of the Cretans was bull-fighting. In 1894 and the following years a magnificent palace was unearthed at Cnossus. This palace was found to be laid out in the form of a maze, and is said to be the origin of the Labyrinth.

Before I pass on to the historic times of Greece I must say something of those athletics which the Greeks cultivated with such zeal and zest. The Greeks believed that the display of manly strength and beauty was very pleasing to the gods. They exercised and developed their bodies, and held contests in honour of Poseidon, the god of the sea; Apollo, the god of song and music; and Zeus, the great god of all. The chief of these contests was held in honour of Zeus at Olympia, a religious centre on a plain in the south-west of Peloponnesus. At first the Olympian games were no more than the foot races of neighbouring youths, who ran a course of about two hundred yards for a prize which was simply a crown of wild olive. Gradually the festival grew in importance; competitors from all the Greek world engaged in the contests, which included all kinds of running, wrestling, boxing, leaping, quoit and spear play, horsemanship, and the driving of the chariot.

The games were held every fourth year, and from 776 B.C. onwards the names and states of the winners were carefully preserved. In their own states the victors were held in the highest honour. Though the judges only awarded them a wreath cut from the sacred olive grove of Zeus, their own states loaded them with presents and honours and privileges. The winner of the foot race or chariot race at the Olympian games was held in far higher honour than most of the magistrates. As you know, these games have been recently revived in Sweden, America, and in our own country.

The Greeks were a very superstitious race, and they were eager to learn what the future held in store for them by noting signs and wonders. Before they undertook any enterprise of the slightest importance, they visited what were called the oracles, the chief of which was at Delphi, shut in by an amphitheatre of rocks amidst wild and barren mountains. The god was supposed to reside in a cleft in the rocks, from which issued a cloud of poisonous vapour. The priestess sat on a tripod above this cleft, and worked herself into a frenzy, during which she chanted wild and whirling words which were carefully copied down and studied. Even statesmen and philosophers consulted the oracles, and those who were about to seek their fortunes in other lands would not set forth until the oracle had given them guidance. Great temples filled with costly

DISCIPLES OF SAPPHO.

(*From the picture by T. R. Spence.*)

Sappho was a poetess of ancient Greece. Her love poems were very beautiful in form, and gave great delight to the people. The above picture shows the recital of her poems at a festival in her honour.

offerings grew up on the wild and awesome spots in deep forests or in the bosom of the mountains where the gods were supposed to dwell.

*Read: Homer's Tale of Odysseus,* by H. E. Haig Brown (Nelson); *Stories from the Iliad,* by Jeanie Lang (Jack).

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## 5. IONIANS AND DORIANS.

THE first great landmark in the history of Greece was the invasion of the Peloponnesus—that is, of all Greece south of the Gulf of Corinth—by hardy peoples from the rugged and sterile north. When these peoples, the most important of whom were the Dorians, began to move southward, the Peloponnesus was partly inhabited by the Ionians and partly by the Achæans. The newcomers conquered the old dwellers; and many of the Ionians crossed over to Asia Minor, where they settled on the central part of the coast and the islands opposite to it, and founded certain cities—such as Miletus and Ephesus—which were known as the Ionic Colonies. A large number of Achæans also emigrated, some to the island of Lesbos, and others to the north coast of Asia Minor, where their settlements were known as the Æolic Colonies. The fine climate and the fertile soil of Asia Minor soon attracted the Dorians, some of whom founded colonies on the south part of the west coast of Asia Minor, and on the islands of Rhodes and Crete. The migrations, which I have dismissed in a few lines, occupied hundreds of years.

Gradually the Greeks established settlements all round the Ægean Sea, and on the islands which studded it. They migrated as far as the Crimea in the Black Sea; and some of them settled in southern Italy, where they founded what was afterwards called Magna Græcia, or Greater Greece. Greeks also settled in Sicily and on the site of Marseilles. On the Mediterranean coast of Africa, westward from Egypt, the flourishing district of Cyrenica also became Greek. While describing the manner in which the Greeks spread their colonies over the Mediterranean coastlands I have run ahead of my story. The colonizing period of Greece extended from the invasion of the Dorians—that is, from about 1100 B.C. down to 600 B.C.

The Dorians were few in number, and they divided themselves into bands, each of which became a small independent state. They did not destroy the conquered peoples, but kept them in subjection. As time went on, the old inhabitants in some parts of the country regained power again. When Grecian history really begins, we find two leading races amongst the Greeks—the Dorians and the Ionians. The Dorians were hard, severe, blunt, simple in life and opposed to change. We still use the word *Doric* to indicate a rustic dialect. The Ionians were lively, excitable, fond of ease and comfort, clever in bargaining, fond of change, and very artistic. They were also very sensitive to the finer delights of the mind, and were ready to receive and improve upon the civilization which came to them from the East.

I have already described the kingly government of the Homeric age. About the year 900 B.C. we find that in most of the Greek states this old kingly rule had disappeared, and small republics or commonwealths had been set up. The people governed themselves; all the offices of the state were open to the citizens, who spoke and voted in the assemblies where they made the laws and carried on the business of government. There was, however, a Dorian state which retained all its old features, and in course of time became the greatest military power of Greece. It was known as Sparta, and it occupied the south-eastern portion of the Peloponnesus. Its town, Lacedæmon, or Sparta, stood at the foot of Mount Taygetus, on the banks of the river Eurotas, twenty miles from its mouth. When Sparta was founded, it was simply an invaders' camp in an enemy country. All round it was the old Achæan population. The Spartans attacked and conquered their neighbours, and extended their territory on both sides of Eurotas till they reached the sea.

We know very little of Sparta until the times of the great Spartan lawgiver Lycurgus, who probably lived about 825 B.C.

At that time the people of Sparta were divided into three classes. First of all there were the Spartans, who numbered only one-tenth of the population; then the conquered inhabitants, who had been allowed to keep their farms; and finally, the Helots, or serfs, who toiled for their Spartan masters. The old inhabitants, who remained free, were obliged to serve as soldiers with the Spartans, but they were not allowed to have any voice in government, nor were they permitted to marry the daughters of their masters. The Helots, who were the tillers of the soil, had no rights at all. They cultivated the lands for the Spartans, and were obliged to send to the city every year a certain fixed amount of corn and oil. All that they produced over and above this amount they were allowed to keep for themselves.

The Spartans thought all work but fighting beneath their dignity. While the Dorians in other parts of the Peloponnesus took to peaceful occupations, the Dorian Spartans remained a military people. War was the only business of their lives. Other Dorians, such as the people of Corinth, for instance, might give themselves up to trading or seafaring; not so the Spartans. Lycurgus made Sparta an armed camp, and its walls, he declared, were the bodies of its citizens. No weakly or deformed child was allowed to grow up in the city. At seven years of age the boys were taken from their mothers, and trained for the work of war by state officers. They were exercised in gymnastics and in the use of arms, and were taught to bear every kind of hardship without complaining. They were kept short of food, and were sometimes flogged to death before the altars of the gods. Any boy who showed the slightest sign of pain or fear was despised and rejected. They were taught to steal, and to practise crafty tricks of every description.

Even when they grew to manhood they were not allowed to live at home with their wives or families, but had to sleep in barracks, dine at the public mess, and spend long hours every day in drilling. Only when they reached the age of sixty were they free from military service. The women were just as hard and martial-minded as the men, and would say to their sons, " Return, my son, with your shield, or on it." For knowledge and the things of the mind the Spartans cared nothing at all. The art of public speech they despised, and practised a blunt, pithy sort of talk which became known as *laconic*, a word derived from Laconia, the name of their country. Military music and poetry which stimulated them to warlike deeds were the only arts which were practised. They had no written laws, used no tools but the axe and the saw in building, had no coined money, and banished gold and silver from amongst them. Their coins were made of iron.

While almost everywhere in Greece the rule of kings came to an end and government by the people took its place, Sparta had two kings, so that neither of them should become too powerful. All Spartans over thirty years of age were allowed to be present and vote "Yes" or "No" at the assemblies, but only the magistrates were allowed to speak. One of the laws of Sparta was that, "if the people decide crookedly, the elders and chiefs shall put it back"—that is to say, should overturn the decision of the assembly. In course of time this assembly handed over its powers to five elders, who were elected every year, and were known as Ephors. They conducted all the business of the state, and made all the laws. Thus there was much greater secrecy in the government of Sparta than in any other part of Greece.

The Spartans were at first forced to become soldiers because they were a small band of nine thousand men surrounded by enemies, and were obliged to be ready at any moment to put down their foes. As time went on they built up the most powerful military machine ever known in the early world. Might was right; and because they were mighty they grew to be arrogant and greedy, and were ever on the lookout for opportunities of making war. At the close of the sixth century B.C. they were not only all-powerful in the Poloponnesus, but had made themselves the leading power in the Greek world.

Now let us turn to the history of Athens, the great and beautiful city which was at the height of its power and influence under Pericles. The Athenians belonged to the Ionian race, and were thus poles asunder from the Spartans. We know little of the early history of the great city. We read of a king named Theseus, who in the thirteenth century B.C. is said to have united the towns of Attica—that is, of the peninsula between the large island of Eubœa and the Gulf of Ægina—and to have made Athens the chief seat of government. The bond of union between the towns was religious; their representatives came together for the purpose of holding festivals in honour of Athene, whom they regarded as the patron goddess of the land. At first the Athenians were ruled by kings, but about the year 1050 B.C. the title of king was changed to Archon, though the office was still held for life, and was continued in the same family. For hundreds of years Athens was ruled by nobles under the headship of the Archon. The members of the chief court of justice, which was held on Areopagus, were elected only from the noble houses.

We now reach the year 776 B.C., when we find ourselves on the firm ground of actual history. In that year the Olympian games became so important that the Greeks chose the year of the first great athletic meeting as the starting-point from which to fix historical dates. They called the four-year interval between the holding of these games an "olympiad." The first olympiad began at midsummer 776 B.C., the second at midsummer 772 B.C., and so on. The intervening years were known as the second, third, or fourth of the particular olympiad which was named.

The story of Athens down to the beginning of the Persian Wars is mainly an account of how she developed from a state in which the Archon and the nobles were all-powerful to a condition in which the people were all-powerful. Even when the Archon and the nobles held the reins of power, there was an assembly of the people, and before long they began to clamour for a large share of the government. One of the Archons, named Draco, made a series of laws in 621 B.C. which were so severe that we speak of any harsh, cruel law as *draconian* to this day. Draco enacted that there should be one punishment for all offences, whether small or great, and this punishment was death. He hoped by this decree to enable the nobles to get rid of dangerous agitators amongst the people.

At this time Athens was divided into various small parties or factions, which furiously hated each other. With all their gifts, the Greeks never learned the simple lesson, "United we stand, divided we fall." It was this quarrelsome disposition, this inability to combine, which at last brought them to ruin. There were, at the time of which I am speaking, three factions in Athens—those who wished to keep all the power in the hands of the nobles, those who wished to transfer all power to the people, and those who steered a middle course and wished to reform the government by slow degrees. It was clear that Athens would soon go all to pieces unless there arose some wise ruler who could bring order out of chaos.

A wise, great man did arise. His name was Solon, and he became Archon in 594 B.C. He had already made himself famous as a poet, and in the war which Athens had waged against the neighbouring state of Megara for the possession of the island of Salamis, off the coast of Attica, he had proved himself an able general. He now set about the task of reducing the power of the nobles, though he had no intention of setting up the full rule of the people. He belonged to the middle party, and his idea was to hasten slowly.

The people at this time had real grievances. The land was in the hands of a few persons, and the tenant farmers, if they failed to pay rent, were sold into slavery with their wives and children. Solon began his work by doing away with Draco's laws, and confining the punishment of death to the crime of murder. Then he converted the tenant farmers into landholders, wiped off all debts, and made other improvements with such tact and skill that he won the confidence of the people.

He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the amount of property which they held, and did away with the law which confined the high offices of the state to men of noble birth. For the future, these offices were to be open to all who belonged to the three higher classes. Then he set up a council, which was to be chosen every year by lot, and gave it the duty of preparing measures which were to be voted on by the Ecclesia, or assembly of the people. This assembly, which was composed of all the citizens, had the power of

THE VICTOR OF THE OLYMPIAN GAMES IN THE TEMPLE OF ZEUS.

making laws, choosing the magistrates, deciding on peace or war, and settling all questions brought before it by the Council. For the purpose of conducting trials in the courts of law, six thousand jurymen were chosen by lot each year from the Ecclesia. In addition to these laws, Solon made many others which dealt with the private rights of the citizens.

Solon thus laid the foundations of that democracy which afterwards obtained in Athens. At first, however, his laws were a failure. When he left Athens for a tour abroad, a leader named Pisistratus arose who managed to get all the power into his own hands. He was called by the Greeks a "tyrant," but the word had not then the meaning which we now ascribe to it. A tyrant was simply a man who obtained absolute power in an irregular way, but was not necessarily a harsh ruler. Many of the Greek states were ruled by tyrants at this time, and in some cases they ruled well. Pisistratus, for example, was an excellent ruler. He established local courts in the country districts, organized the water supply, encouraged Athenian commerce, manufactures, and art, formed alliances with other Greek states, and set up colonies in many parts of the Greek world. He took care not to destroy the laws of Solon, and he caused the poems of Homer to be collected and written down.

Pisistratus died in 528 B.C., and was succeeded by his two sons, who were joint rulers. They, however, were not worthy sons of a great father. One of them was murdered, and the other was expelled by the Spartans, who were called upon to do this work by a noble family headed by Cleisthenes, who became leader of the people. Under his guidance the people triumphed, and Athens became a real democracy. Peace reigned, and Athens flourished.

I have now sketched the history of Athens and Sparta, the two chief states of Greece—the one Ionian and the other Dorian—down to the year 500 B.C. We are now on the eve of a long and terrible warfare, during which Greece was to render great and notable service to Europe by safeguarding the West from the destroying hand of Eastern invaders. The Persians had cast covetous eyes on the peninsula, and they were about to fling huge forces against it. Had they conquered Greece, an Asiatic power would have gained a footing in Europe, and would have brought with it that system of despotic rule which is the deathblow to human happiness and progress. Greece flung back the invader, and by doing so enabled Europe to work out its destiny—that is, to produce freedom-loving nations. In later lessons we shall see another great attempt of Asiatic peoples to overrun Europe. This attempt was partially successful, and placed the Turk in possession of the Balkans. He still clings to a small portion of his gains; but his hold is feeble, and any day he may be finally expelled.

*Read:* "Tales of Sparta," from Havell's *Stories from Greek History,* retold from Herodotus (Harrap); the chapter on "Solon" from Lemon's *Stories from Greek History* (Jack).

## 6. THE PERSIAN WARS.

THE story of how the Persians within thirty years overcame a large part of Western Asia, and made themselves masters or overlords of Media, Lydia, Ionia, Babylonia, Phœnicia, and Egypt belongs to the history of Asia. By the conquest of Lydia, Persia became master of the Greek cities on the coast of Asia Minor. These cities had prospered greatly, and had become rich and great before the cities of European Greece were more than villages. The most important of them were the twelve independent cities founded by the Ionians. Though the people of these cities met together for religious festivals, they had no other bond of union.

About the year 720 B.C. they were attacked by the King of Lydia, and one by one were subdued. The Lydians thus became masters of all the Greek cities on the seaboard of Asia Minor, but they, in turn, were overthrown by Cyrus, the first great Persian king, and thus the Ionic coast cities were threatened with a new master. These cities offered to submit to the Persian king if he would guarantee them the rights which they had held from their Lydian conquerors. Cyrus refused to yield them any rights at all, whereupon in the year 545 B.C. the cities revolted and begged the Spartans to help them against their powerful foe. The Spartans gave them no help, and the Ionian cities fell into the hands of the Persians.

In the year 521 B.C. Darius ascended the throne of Persia. His empire extended from the Indus to the Ægean Sea, but a large part of it was in revolt. With wonderful energy he reduced his vast empire to order, and in the year 510 marched a huge army to the shores of the Bosporus, across which he threw a bridge of boats. He persuaded the rulers of the Ionian cities to provide him with a fleet of five hundred ships, and join in an expedition against the Scythians, who lived north of the Danube. This expedition ended in complete failure, and Darius returned with only the remnant of his army. He had, however, gained a footing in Thrace—that is, in the lands west and north of the Sea of Marmora—and he now sent a general with eighty thousand men to conquer the territory.

A glance at the map * shows you that the Persians were now on the borders of Macedonia, from which they could push southward into Greece. Before long the King of Macedonia sent Darius earth and water in token of submission, and the Persian Empire extended as far as Thessaly, the corn land of Greece. Darius handed over the Ionian cities to tyrants of his own choice. One of these tyrants, a very ambitious man, received permission to conquer the island of Naxos and add it to the Persian Empire. He tried to do this with fleets provided by the Ionic cities, but failed, and, fearing that Darius would put him to death, suggested that the assembled fleets should be used to throw off the yoke of the hated tyrants. The Ionians yielded to the temptation, and rose in revolt against Persia. They begged assistance from the Athenians, who sent them a force of ships and men. This force burnt Sardis; but after a six years' struggle Darius conquered the whole seaboard of Ionia. He was then free to punish the Athenians for daring to oppose him. Thus began the Persian Wars.

In the year 493 B.C. the Persian general Mardonius crossed the Hellespont, and marched towards Greece along the coast of

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* See p. 16.

Thrace, the fleet accompanying him. While the ships were sailing round Mount Athos, the most eastern of three promontories which project from Macedonia into the Ægean Sea like the prongs of a trident, a hurricane destroyed the fleet, and Mardonius was forced to retreat into Asia.

Three years later Darius assembled a new army and a new fleet, and made vast preparations for the invasion; but before doing so he sent envoys to the islands and to the states to demand earth and water in token of submission. Most of them yielded, but Sparta and Athens defied the Persian to do his worst. In 490 B.C. his fleets crossed the Ægean, and the armies landed on the island of Eubœa and besieged Eretria, the gates of which were opened by traitors. From Eretria they crossed the strait, and landed on the plain of Marathon, twenty-two miles from Athens.

The Athenians had but 10,600 men to oppose a powerful army of 100,000 invaders. Sparta had promised help, but for a superstitious reason delayed to send it until the day after the battle. Nevertheless, the Athenians with splendid courage attacked the Persian host and drove it to its ships in utter rout. This victory was one of the decisive battles of the world. It saved Greece from becoming a Persian province, and it saved Europe from a history which might have resembled that of Asia in being the story of oppressors and their slaves. For centuries afterwards the battle of Marathon was celebrated by the Athenians in picture, poetry, speech, and song.

After the battle Greece enjoyed peace for ten years. During this time Athens was governed by two great men—Themistocles and Aristides. Themistocles, the ablest man of his time, saw clearly that the Persians would attack Athens again and again, and that she could best meet the foe by sea. He opened up the silver mines of Laurium, and with the treasure thus obtained built a navy of two hundred war galleys propelled by three banks of oars on each side. Aristides disapproved of this naval policy, believing that the Persians could be best met and defeated on land, and that Marathon could be repeated. The opposition of Aristides led to his banishment, and Themistocles built his fleet.

THE PLAIN OF MARATHON.

Darius died in 485 B.C., and his successor, Xerxes, at once proceeded to prepare an enormous force for a second invasion of Greece. On the shores of Ionia and Phœnicia he assembled twelve hundred warships and three thousand transports. Enormous stores of food were collected, and a canal was cut through Mount Athos, to avoid the dangerous passage which had wrecked the expedition of 493 B.C. It is said that his army numbered one million men, representing more than forty nations. A double bridge of boats was flung across the Hellespont, and the march into Thrace began (480 B.C.). Meanwhile, in face of this grave danger, the states of Greece were summoned to meet at the Isthmus of Corinth. Most of the states sent deputies, and a patriotic league was formed against Persia, with Sparta at its head. The Greeks decided to meet the Persians in battle at the Pass of Thermopylæ, which you will find on the map at the head of a deep bay on the eastern coast. The Persians could only advance by a narrow road which ran between the mountains and a swamp stretching to the sea.

As the Spartans at this time were holding a religious festival, and the Olympic games were due, only three hundred Spartans, along with about seven thousand other Greeks, were sent to Thermopylæ, under the command of Leonidas. Their business was to hold the pass at all costs until the whole Greek army could be assembled. For two days they withstood the huge army of the Persians; but on the third day a path was discovered across the mountains, and the enemy was enabled to take them in the rear. Leonidas had now to withdraw or perish. The law of his land forbade him and his comrades to retreat, so, after ordering the other Greeks to retire, he and his three hundred Spartans, along with seven hundred Thespians who bravely resolved to stand by him, prepared to sell their lives dearly. They charged desperately into the thick of the Persians, and, fighting gloriously, perished to the last man. The superb stand of the Spartans at Thermopylæ was not made in vain; it inspired the Greeks with courage to meet the invaders.

Central Greece now lay at the mercy of the Persians, and before long Attica was overrun and Athens razed to the ground.

THE GREEKS REJOICING AFTER THE VICTORY OF SALAMIS.

The only hope of the Greeks lay in the fleet which Themistocles had built. To his two hundred galleys the other states added a hundred and fifty, and with these vessels he had to oppose nearly three times that number of Persian ships. They were met off the island of Salamis, and Xerxes looked on while two hundred of his vessels were sunk. The rest fled from the straits, and Xerxes, losing heart, and leaving Mardonius with 300,000 of his best troops in Greece, retreated through Thrace to Asia, losing thousands of his men by hunger and disease during the march. Mardonius spent the winter in Thessaly, and when summer arrived advanced into Attica and retook Athens, which had again been abandoned at his approach. He then returned northward, and in September was utterly and finally defeated in the battle of Platæa. The Greeks slaughtered the Persians like sheep, and captured an enormous quantity of booty. On the same day the Greeks were victorious in a battle near Miletus, on the coast of Asia Minor. Thus the Persians were crushed, and Greece was saved. Eighteen hundred years were to pass before an Asiatic army again set foot on Greek soil.

The half-century following the battle of Salamis was the age of Pericles, during which Athens rose to its greatest height of splendour and power. In Lesson 3 you read an account of the city as it was in this brilliant period. I told you of its architectural glories and of its manufacturing and commercial greatness. It was even more renowned for its scholars, philosophers, and writers. I cannot in these pages give you an account of those writers who are the greatest glory of ancient Athens. They include the historians Thucydides and Xenophon; the orator Demosthenes; the philosophers Plato, Aristotle, and Socrates; and the dramatists Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes; all of whom have bequeathed to us treasures of thought and jewels of language which are amongst the priceless possessions of the world.

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*Read:* "The Pass of Thermopylæ," from Miss Yonge's *A Book of Golden Deeds* (Nelson); John Buchan's "The Lemnian," in *The Moon Endureth* (Blackwood).

## 7. THE FALL OF ATHENS.

You are now to read how Athens fell and how Sparta for a period triumphed. In the time of Pericles, Sparta was pre-eminent by land and Athens by sea. These powers had fought together to overthrow Xerxes, but there was no love lost between them. They had nothing in common. Athens was the home of new ideas, the state which encouraged all the gracious arts of life, which loved to adorn itself and give its citizens the greatest freedom in self-government. Sparta, on the other hand, was a land of the grimmest and sternest virtues. It scorned the arts, it hated commerce; it thought only of war and conquest, and it believed in the rule of nobles. The Spartans, though they despised the Athenians, were fiercely jealous of their rivals, and it was clear that war would soon break out between them.

A quarrel between the islanders of Corcyra (now Corfu) and the people of Corinth broke out in the year 431 B.C. The Athenians took the part of the islanders, and the Spartans went to the assistance of the Corinthians, whose ruling class were fellow-Dorians, and also the greatest commercial rivals of Athens. The other states took sides, and thus began a war which lasted with short intervals for twenty years, and ended with the fall of Athens and the general weakening of Greece. In the first ten years of the struggle neither side could claim the mastery. The Spartans ravaged Attica in the first year of war, and invaded it again in three out of the five following years. The Athenians, crowded within the walls of their city, were attacked by plague, which carried off many of them, including Pericles. After his death unworthy men arose who had no claim to rule except their ability to make speeches. The fortune of war favoured first this side and then that, and by the year 421 B.C. both Athens and Sparta were prepared to make a truce.

At this time a brilliant but unscrupulous statesman named Alcibiades was leader of the Athenians. He persuaded the people to break the truce and continue the war. His plan was to send an expedition against Syracuse, the great Dorian settlement in Sicily. If that rich and fruitful island could be reduced, it was hoped that with the help of Magna Græcia Athens would become mistress of the Mediterranean, and the foremost power of the world. She would then be able to crush Sparta at will.

Such was the bold plan which Alcibiades persuaded the Athenians to adopt. In the year 415 B.C. a great fleet set sail under the command of Alcibiades and Nicias. Almost at once the Athenians recalled Alcibiades, the only man who had a chance of making the plan a success. He was accused of disfiguring the busts of the god Hermes, the patron of Athenian democracy, and he knew that his life was in danger. He escaped on the way home, made his way to Sparta, and persuaded the Spartans to send troops for the defence of Syracuse. The consequence was that Nicias was repulsed. A second effort was made in 413 B.C., but it failed utterly. The whole expedition was wiped out to the last ship and the last man. Athens had attempted a task that was too big for her, and she was now obliged to fight desperately to preserve her independence.

In 412 B.C. many of her allies or subject states turned against her, and she sank so low that she was obliged to seek the help of her old enemies, the Persians. By this time Alcibiades had quarrelled with the Spartans, and had returned to Athens, where he again took command of her forces. The old democracy of Athens had now gone; the laws of Solon had been swept away, and all power was in the hands of a few men.

Alcibiades fought the Spartans and their allies in Asia Minor, and won some success; but in 405 B.C. the Athenian fleet was captured by surprise at Ægospotami, in the Dardanelles. In the following year the Spartans blockaded Athens by land and sea, and after a siege of four months the city was forced to surrender. Seventy-six years after her victory at Salamis she lay at the feet of her Spartan conqueror. All that remained to her was her undying empire of art, philosophy, and letters.

Sparta now became the leading state of Greece, and for thirty-four years maintained her supremacy. She strove to build up an empire which should exceed the fallen Athens in extent and splendour. But the Spartans, greedy and bullying by nature, did not know how to rule free men. They came into conflict with Persia, and before long a league, consisting of Corinth, Argos, Thebes, and Athens, was formed against them. In the course of the war which followed both sides endeavoured to secure the aid of Persia. Sparta had by no means the best of the fighting, and in 387 B.C. was forced to come to terms with Persia. The Power which had been smitten hip and thigh at Marathon and Salamis was now the overlord of Greece.

Sparta failed for a variety of reasons. She had but a limited population, and she had insufficient resources for a war across the seas. When she lost men she could not replace them ; her enemies, on the other hand, could hire almost unlimited numbers of soldiers to fight for them. Then, again, while the Spartans fought in Asia Minor, those whom they badly treated in Greece rose against them, and they had to wage war on two fronts. After the peace Sparta confined her attention to Greece proper. She was all-powerful in Peloponnesus, and she strove to extend her power northward. She treated the states with great harshness, and thus aroused their jealousy and hatred. Her interference in the affairs of Thebes led to a war in which the great Theban general Epaminondas and his infantry, now the best in Greece, so completely defeated her that her power was at an end (371 B.C.).

We have seen Athens rise to greatness and sink into decay and Sparta follow in her footsteps. Thebes now became war leader of Greece, but her supremacy was brief. Epaminondas, not content with destroying the authority of Sparta outside Peloponnesus, now determined to break down her power in Peloponnesus itself, and in order to do this united a number of cities into one great league. These cities were so jealous of each other that they would not agree that any one of them should be the meeting-place of deputies from the other cities. Consequently, Epaminondas founded a new city, Megalopolis (the great city), for the purpose. Quarrels broke out amongst the members of the league, and in 362 B.C. the Spartans, taking advantage of the disunion, strove to reassert their old supremacy. Epaminondas met them near Mantinea, and won a great victory, but died of a wound when the battle was over. With his death the power of Thebes came to an end. Greece was exhausted by warfare, and a general peace was made.

Now the scene shifts to Macedonia, which had never been considered by the Greeks as part of Hellas. Macedonia, unlike all the states of Greece but Sparta, was united under one king. Its people were regarded as uncouth rustics by the educated Greeks, because they had no books or art, but lived a country life, and spent their lives in farming and hunting. Though the Macedonians were not considered to be Greeks, they were allowed to compete at the Olympian games, and their king, Archelaus, who reigned about 400 B.C., strove to make Macedonia as Greek as possible. He invited Greek poets and artists to his kingdom, built cities and made roads, and in other ways tried to make it strong and prosperous. His people were hardy and warlike, and when Greece wore herself out by her long-continued warfare, Macedonia was fresh and powerful.

In the days of Epaminondas the King of Macedonia was a man of great ability named Philip. As a youth he had been held hostage for three years by the Thebans, and had learnt the art of war from Epaminondas, the finest soldier of his time. When he became king he established a regular army such as no Greek state possessed, and in 359 B.C. set to work to make his country supreme in the Greek world.

A quarrel between the Thebans and their neighbours the Phocians about a bit of sacred ground, which the latter people desired to cultivate instead of allowing it to lie fallow, gave Philip the opportunity he needed. The states took sides, and war began. Then Philip stepped in, defeated the Phocians, and made himself master of all Thessaly.

Athens now reappeared on the scene. She placed herself at the head of a league to oppose Philip, but her people were no longer filled with martial spirit, and had to hire soldiers to fight for them. The great orator, Demosthenes, made a series of the most stirring speeches, and besought the Athenians to march against Philip, who, he felt assured, was aiming at the mastery of Greece. Demosthenes did not thunder in vain. In the year 338 B.C. he brought about an alliance between Athens and Thebes, and the might of Philip was challenged. On the fatal field of Chæronea the Athenian and Theban armies were utterly overthrown. The victory was mainly due to the military formation in which the Macedonians fought. This was known as the Macedonian phalanx, and consisted of a solid mass of men sixteen deep. All the men were clad in heavy armour, and the front ranks carried pikes eighteen feet long. Against this weighty mass bristling with spear-points the Greeks could do nothing.

After the battle of Chæronea, Philip was master of Greece. He had already dreamed of subduing the Persian Empire, but he was assassinated before his plans took shape. The task was left to his son Alexander, one of the greatest war lords the world has ever seen. Some have called him the " Macedonian Madman," and have pictured him as being inspired by a sheer lust of empire. His fame rests on his wonderful powers as a general, and his remarkable influence over men. Napoleon said that he was " one of the seven greatest generals whose noble deeds history has handed down to us, and from the study of whose campaigns the principles of war are to be learned." Nor was he a mere soldier ; next to Pericles he was the most liberal patron of art and letters that Greece ever knew.

I cannot in these pages dwell on the wide conquests which he made in Asia. He crossed the Hellespont in 334 B.C., and in the course of the next ten years carried Greek power, language, and civilization from the shores of the Ægean Sea to the banks of the Indus, and from the Caspian Sea to the Nile. In his thirty-second year he was the mightiest sovereign the world has ever known ; but while at the very height of his greatness, when he was dreaming of fresh worlds to conquer, he died of a fever in Babylon, which he had meant to make his capital.

He left no heir to his immense empire, and after his death it became split up into various semi-Greek, semi-Asiatic kingdoms.

We now reach the last period in the history of Greece as an independent country. It is a sad story of rivalries and intrigues, of almost constant tumults and wars, and of the decay of distressed states. The successors of Alexander brought the affairs of Macedonia into confusion, and Athens headed a league to try to shake off its supremacy, but completely failed, and Macedonia still remained supreme. A king of Macedonia who reigned from 294 to 287 B.C. was a man of great energy and inventive powers of mind. He was known as "Besieger of Cities," a title which well indicates the chief occupation of his life. A combination of enemies headed by Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, drove him from the throne.

Pyrrhus, who ascended the throne of Epirus in 295 B.C., was the greatest warrior of his age. Generous, daring, restless, and skilful, he tried to do in the Western world what Alexander had done in the Eastern. In the year 280 B.C. he crossed over to Italy in order to help the Greeks of Tarentum against Rome, the new Western Power which was destined to become the greatest world force of ancient times, and to impress features upon European history which can never be effaced. Pyrrhus challenged the Romans; but though at first he made headway against them, they drove him from Italy in 275 B.C. Thereafter he turned his arms against Macedonia, and became its king. An attempt to extend his sway to Peloponnesus brought about his death. As he was entering the city of Argos a woman from a housetop hurled a heavy tile at him and stunned him, whereupon his enemies fell upon him and slew him.

In the time of Pyrrhus, Greece was not only brought into contact with that Italian Power which was hereafter to become the "mistress of the world," but also with the Gauls, who were to play so large a part in later history. In 280 B.C. a body of Gauls invaded Greece by way of Macedonia and Thessaly. They were defeated, but some of them crossed over to Asia Minor, and there adopted Greek customs and religion, and

ALEXANDER'S ENTRY INTO BABYLON.

(*From the painting by Charles le Brun in the Louvre.*)

founded *Galatia*, which is well known to you because of the epistle which St. Paul afterwards wrote to the Christians of that province.

About the year 260 B.C. a king of Macedonia was master of all Greece except Sparta. To put down Macedonian power and restore freedom, two leagues were formed—the Achæan League and the Ætolian League. The former was a combination of ten cities on the north coast of Peloponnesus; the latter consisted of the rough tribes of Ætolia dwelling north of the Gulf of Corinth to the west of Phocæa. Most of the states joined one or other of these leagues, and for a time they managed to preserve the freedom of the cities. Sparta, jealous of the Achæan League, declared war, but was overthrown. Finally the two leagues quarrelled and fought, and the Achæan League had to ask Macedonia for help.

Macedonia at this time was ruled by an able king named Philip V. He assisted the enemies of Rome, and the Romans determined to be revenged upon him. They formed an alliance with the Ætolian League against him, and in 197 B.C. totally defeated him in a battle fought in Thessaly. After this time the Romans continually interfered in the affairs of Greece, and in the year 146 B.C., when the Spartans appealed for help against the Achæan League, they captured Corinth, dissolved the league, and turned Greece into a Roman province.

Before I close this lesson, which brings the story of ancient Greece to an end, let us inquire why the gifted people of this highly favoured land failed to hold their own against a foreign enemy. Despite all their gifts, they never learned to combine and act together. Their cities were always jealous of each other, and the inhabitants of each city were divided into opposing parties, which were constantly disputing and quarrelling. The old fable of the dying father who taught his disunited sons the power of union by showing them that each separate stick in a bundle could easily be broken, but that the faggot defied their strength, was never learnt by the Greeks, and as a consequence their history was largely a series of miserable squabbles, ending in their subjection to a race greatly inferior to them in genius.

This fatal weakness must not, however, make us forget what the world owes to Greece. The inhabitants of this little land first taught European men those principles of popular government which are now the ideal in every civilized country. They also taught men that life is more than meat, and the body is more than raiment. Though they failed as empire builders, they opened up to all the far more glorious kingdom of the mind. They taught the men of Europe to observe and question nature, and to find explanations of the wonders about them, and thus laid the foundations of that science which in our day ministers so greatly to our power and happiness. They taught men to think about their own thoughts, to strive to discover the nature of time, space, and other ideas that lie at the root of all knowledge, and to plan out the best modes of living. They fashioned in stone and pigment things of perfect beauty which gave men the highest and best of joys, and they set down in deathless pages those masterpieces which are still read with pleasure and profit, and have stimulated men to produce the like right through the ages.

*Read :* The chapter on "Demosthenes," from Lemon's *Stories from Greek History* (Jack) ; also "Alexander the Great," in *Torch-Bearers of History*, Part I. (Nelson).

## 8. THE LEGACY OF ROME TO THE MODERN WORLD.

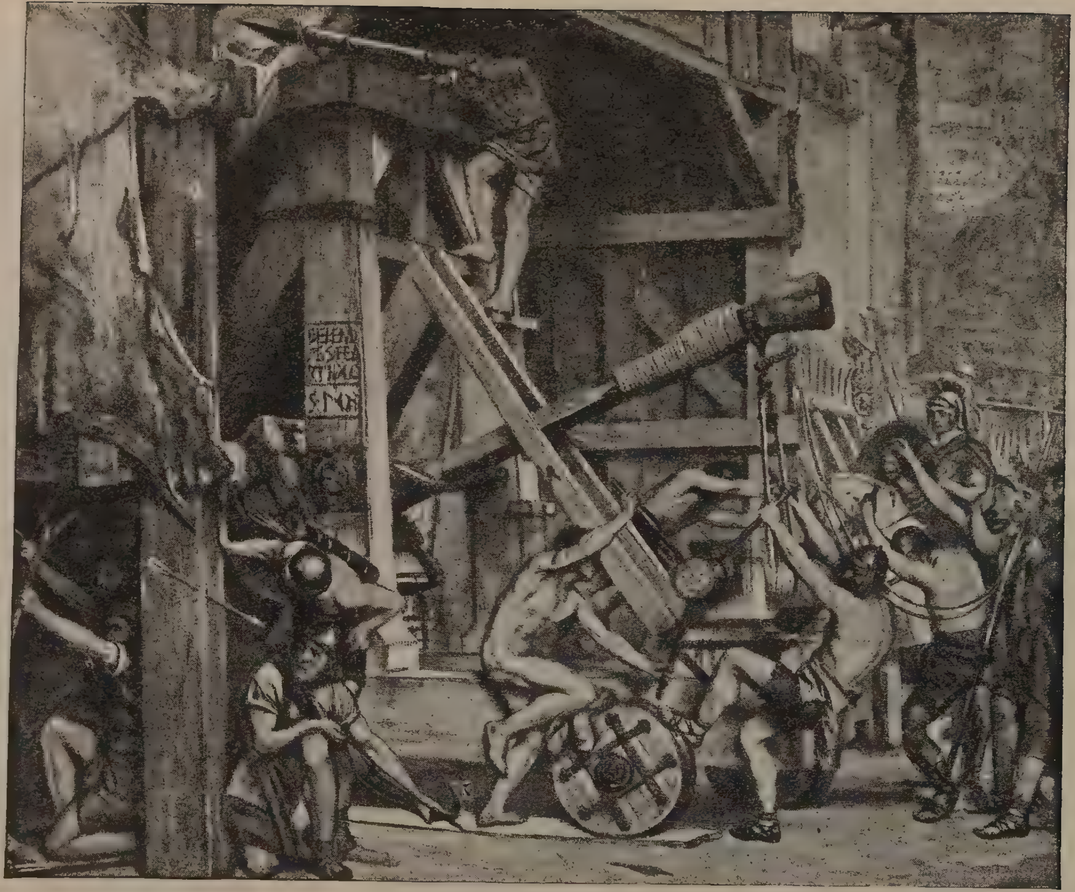
"WESTWARD the course of empire takes its way." While Athens was basking in the sunshine of her golden age and dreaming of a greatness that should endure for aye, that small town in the midland of Italy, which was afterwards to supplant her and attain a supremacy far beyond anything which she could ever claim, was slowly and painfully struggling towards unity and strength. Certain tribes of an early day had established their rude settlements on a group of seven low hills, some fourteen miles up the river Tiber from the sea. These tribes, "the wolves of Italy," founded Rome, and added to themselves other tribes of kindred blood. Fierce, greedy, and determined, they began a career of conquest, and by the year 290 B.C. had subdued all Central Italy.

The history of Rome is the story of how a single small town made itself master of a moderately sized country, and finally of the whole then-known world. One hundred and forty years after Rome won the sceptre of Central Italy the Mediterranean Sea was a Roman lake, ringed round by lands which one and all were subject to her sway. She became the "queen of nations," and set up an empire such as the world had never seen before. Its mighty fabric, its long-enduring character, and its enormous influence on ancient and modern times, make the story of the Roman Empire the most important chapter in the history of the world.

All European peoples are in a large degree the children of the Roman Empire. Modern Europe was founded on the ruins of the Roman Empire, and the European nations of to-day grew up under its shadow. Their institutions, customs, and habits of mind are largely Roman. Of all the forces which operate in their daily life there is only one—the Christian religion—which they do not owe to the Romans. For this reason the study of Roman history is of great importance to all European peoples.

The genius of Rome rose supreme in warfare, in law, and in the business of government, and in these departments her influence on the modern world is especially strong. She taught the world how to organize for war; how to array, discipline, and manœuvre great armies; how to conquer and hold down subject peoples. The secret of all her power lay in her discipline. The very word is Roman. The most striking incidents of her history are examples of discipline, as, for instance, the story of the commander who put to death his own son for having gained a victory without orders.

Discipline began in the Roman family, which was the model of the Roman state. The father (*pater*) was all-powerful in the home. His children obeyed him without question, and he had the power of life and death over them. All that they could win was his to dispose of; each for all and all for each



THE CATAPULT.

(*From the picture by E. J. Poynter, R.A. By permission of Sir Christopher Furness, M.P.*)

This picture shows the catapult used in Roman times. There was not much difference between the catapult represented here and that used in the Middle Ages.

was the family rule. As the state grew, the duties of obedience and sacrifice which the children of a family owed to their father became the duties which they owed to the fatherland.

> "For Romans in Rome's quarrel
> Spared neither land nor gold,
> Nor son nor wife, nor limb nor life,
> In the brave days of old."

Love of country, and willingness to spend and be spent in its service, were the marks which distinguished Romans in their best days. They gave the world the idea of *patriotism* as well as the word which indicates it.

Modern ideas of warfare have all been developed from the military system of Rome. The Roman legion has its counterpart in the modern brigade, the Roman cohort in the modern battalion, and the Roman century in the modern company. Roman ideas of drill and mass movements have not yet wholly departed. The catapults and other engines for hurling bolts and stones over a range of hundreds of yards were the origin of modern artillery. Roman methods of fortification remained until the Great War. "Digging in," which forms so large a part of the work of modern infantry, was well known to the Romans, who constantly used the spade for constructing ditches and ramparts.

The Roman soldier was the best fighting man of his time; but he was more than a fighter: he was an engineer as well. As an invading Roman army passed on, it left behind it a series of fortified stations, and these stations were linked together by a system of military roads. The Romans never had their equal as road-builders. Their roads may still be seen all over the Roman world, and some of them are in use to this day. Farmers' wains still rumble over parts of those British Roman roads known as Watling Street and Irmin Street. Our soldiers in North France have marched over roads which Roman legionaries built when all Europe south and west of the Rhine and Danube owed fealty to Cæsar. When a land was subdued, the fortified stations became towns, most of which were built on a town-planning scheme. To this day Roman walls, aqueducts, baths, amphitheatres remain as striking monuments to the skill and thoroughness of those who designed and built them.

It is to Rome that we owe the preservation of all that was best in the civilization of Greece. From Greece the Italians received their alphabet, and learned to read and write. A well-known writer tells us that "Italy owed almost everything to Greece, not only in later days, when the setting sun of Greek civilization mingled its rays with the dawn of Roman greatness, but ever since the first Greek colonists started westward in search of new homes." The Romans were a strong, practical people without any artistic tastes. They conquered the Greeks; but in a sense the Greeks conquered them, for Greek civilization in the course of time overspread Rome, and was passed on by the Romans to all parts of their empire. Between 30 B.C. and the birth of Christ the children of high-born Romans actually learned Greek before they studied their mother-tongue. Greek scholars taught at Rome, Greek artists and musicians were highly esteemed in the great city, and Greek architects erected many of the Roman buildings. By the time Greece had perished as an independent country she had handed on her torch to Rome, and the sacred fire was thus preserved for the blessing of the modern world.

One of the greatest boons which Rome gave to the modern world was her system of law. The Greeks, with all their gifts, could never establish a sound legal system. They lacked the Roman steadiness, and were never able to abide by the strict letter of the law when their feelings were aroused. Early in the history of Rome her lawyers thought out very thoroughly the principles of justice which ought to obtain between man and man. So clearly did they set down these principles, that every student of law in our own time must study them. No man may practise at the English bar to-day unless he has some knowledge of Roman law. The law of France and Germany is largely Roman law even now, and there is no civilized state in the world which has not borrowed from the writings of Roman lawyers.

In the government of her wide empire, Rome established a system which in many respects has been followed by those nations of to-day which have foreign possessions. The emperors Augustus and Hadrian organized an Imperial Civil Service very much like our own—governors, deputy-governors, and all sorts of officials were sent out from Rome to rule the provinces, and to command the armies of occupation. Our government of India, for example, is very similar to that which the emperors established for the larger provinces of the Roman Empire. Augustus was the first to make a census of the empire, not merely to ascertain its population, but for the purpose of taxation.

The word *empire* is Roman. Rome is often spoken of as the Imperial City—that is, the city which first held sway over a large extent of subject territory. The Roman emperors in the palmy days of the Imperial City were monarchs of extraordinary might and majesty, and ambitious sovereigns all down the ages have yearned for similar power and glory. What we call Imperialism, or the spirit of empire rule, is, perhaps, the most evil of all the legacies of Rome to the modern world. It was this lust for universal power which drove the Kaiser William to launch his legions against France and Russia. His title *Kaiser* is only a form of the Roman word *Cæsar*. The German Kaiser was not content to rule the German Empire; he coveted that of the whole world.

German Imperialism is simply that absolute rule which was exercised by Roman emperors, but British Imperialism is a very different thing. In large part our Empire is a league of free peoples who have full rights of self-government. The British Empire contains many subject peoples, it is true, but we do not regard them as slaves forced to labour for our enrichment. We rule them now as a wise father rules those of his children who are not yet able to govern themselves. We are ready and willing to give them self-government as soon as they are ready for it. The Romans regarded their foreign possessions as estates which were to be developed and worked in the interest of Rome. Our aim is to build up our foreign possessions in the interests of their own people, and we look forward to the day when they will enter into full partnership with us.

RUINS OF ANCIENT ROME.

The proudest boast of a Roman was, "I am a Roman citizen." The word *citizen* is Roman; it comes from the Latin *civitas*, which means a state. We get the modern idea of citizenship from Rome. A free man of the Roman Empire was by birth clothed with rights and duties which accompanied him wherever he went, and could not be stripped from him except by law. In later Roman times men who were not Roman citizens by birth were given the rights of Roman citizenship either because they deserved well of the State, or because the emperor wished to do them honour. Wherever a Roman citizen went throughout the wide bounds of the empire his rights clung to him; Rome guaranteed them, and was ready to fight for them.

You all remember that St. Paul claimed the rights of a freeborn citizen of Rome. He claimed the right to be tried before punishment, and the right to appeal to the emperor from the sentence of the governor of a province. All modern states give their citizens the same sort of rights, and guarantee to protect their lives and property both at home and abroad. It was the murder of American citizens on the high seas by German submarines which forced the United States into the Great War.

A very important legacy which Rome bequeathed to the modern world was its language. It is hardly possible for an educated European to frame an ordinary sentence without using one or more words derived directly or indirectly from Latin. In the sentence which I have just written there are no fewer than eight words which the English language has borrowed from that of ancient Rome. What are called the *Romance* languages—that is, the tongues of France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Rumania—are modern forms of Latin. The amount of Latin found in any particular language is a fairly good indication of the extent to which those who originally spoke it were influenced by Rome, directly or indirectly.

Though Latin is not so supple or so elegant as Greek, and though it is poorer in words, it is, nevertheless, a language of weight and dignity; and it was specially suited to the needs of warfare, law, and government, the three great spheres in which the Romans excelled. It resembles the

Romans in being solid and practical, and in being governed by rules which are clearly laid down and easily understood. For this reason, and because there are so many Latin words in every modern language, no person is considered well educated who has not some knowledge of the tongue spoken on the banks of the Tiber in the days when Rome was mistress of the world.

For centuries after the break-up of the Roman Empire, Latin was the tongue in which learned men wrote their books, and in which foreign governments corresponded with each other. John Milton, you will remember, was engaged by Oliver Cromwell to write Latin letters to foreign princes; and perhaps you know that Isaac Newton, as late as the year 1687, wrote in the same tongue the great work which first revealed the laws of gravitation. This use of Latin by statesmen and scholars was brought about by the Christian Church.

In the reign of the Emperor Augustus, when the seeds of decay had taken root in the Roman Empire, Jesus Christ was born in the subject land of Judæa. At first the religion which He founded was adopted by slaves, outcasts, and humble men; but it made headway. Persecutions followed, and the blood of the martyrs was the seed of the Church. Some three hundred years after the death of Augustus, a Roman emperor placed the cross on his banner, and embraced the formerly despised creed. Twelve years later he built the first church of St. Peter, on the site of a circus in which thousands of Christians had won the crown of martyrdom.

Rome became the centre of Christianity, and the Bishop of Rome the head of the Christian Church. From Rome missionaries of the new faith set forth to all parts of the world, and wherever they went the services of the Church were conducted in the Latin tongue. The monasteries which were set up in many lands taught the scholars of the time, and they naturally wrote the language of the Church. In this way Latin became rooted in all parts of Europe. To this day, many millions of people worship and pray in the tongue of ancient Rome.

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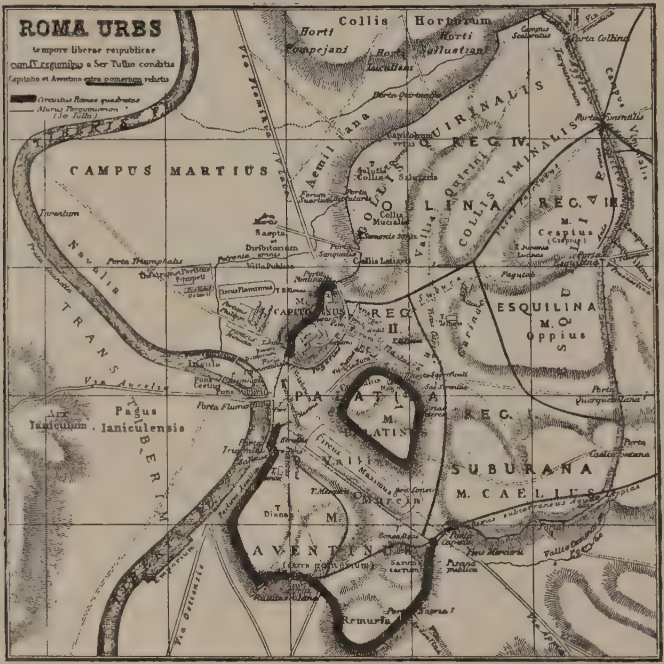
*Read: Three Lays of Ancient Rome,* by Lord Macaulay (Nelson's Supplementary Readers).

## 9. HOW ROME BECAME MISTRESS OF ITALY.

Now let us learn how the city of Rome rose out of obscurity to be the mistress of the world. In this lesson I shall describe how the native Romans took other peoples into partnership with them—first their near kindred, and then all the other races of Italy—and thus became the predominant Power in the peninsula. Then I shall go on to show how these races made wide foreign conquests, and gradually admitted the inhabitants of their conquered territories—Spain, Gaul, the Danubian lands, Greece, certain countries of the East and of North Africa—into partnership with them. All the peoples of these countries about the middle of the first century A.D. called themselves Romans, and many of the greatest men of Rome's later history were not Roman by birth, or even Italian. When, therefore, we speak of the influence of the Roman Empire, we do not mean merely the influence of the city of Rome, but of that state system which originated on the banks of the Tiber, and gradually extended over all Mediterranean lands and most of Northern Europe outside Germany, Scandinavia, and Russia.

The city which gave birth to this remarkably widespread and enduring state system began in those rude settlements of shepherds and farmers which I have already mentioned as being founded on a group of low hills some fourteen miles from the mouth of the Tiber. The date of the founding of the city is given as 753 B.C. The site was a good one; it lay on the chief river of the west coast of Italy, and enabled the inhabitants to reach both the interior and the sea by water. It also stood near the chief crossing-place of the Tiber, which formed the frontier line between the Etruscans, or Tuscans, on the north, and the Latins and other tribes on the south. The Etruscans were a powerful people who had received their culture from the east, and were superior in civilization to the other Italian tribes. Rome was the frontier guard against these people, and the chief priests of the city throughout their history were known as Pontiffs or "Bridge-makers"—a name which indicates how anxious the Romans were to "keep the bridge" at that point on the Tiber where it could easily be crossed by the Etruscans.

The Latins were the founders of Rome, but before long they added to themselves certain tribes of kindred stock upon an equal footing. Later on, other tribes associated themselves with these Romans; but they were always regarded as inferiors, and had no such rights of government as were possessed by the original settlers. All down Roman history we shall see the descendants of these original settlers claiming to be the nobles of Rome, and, therefore, to be invested with rights which did not belong to those who were descended from later comers. Traders and artisans were attracted to the place, and when Rome emerges into the light of history we find the famous Capitoline Hill as its Acropolis or stronghold. In the valley to the east of it where we now see the

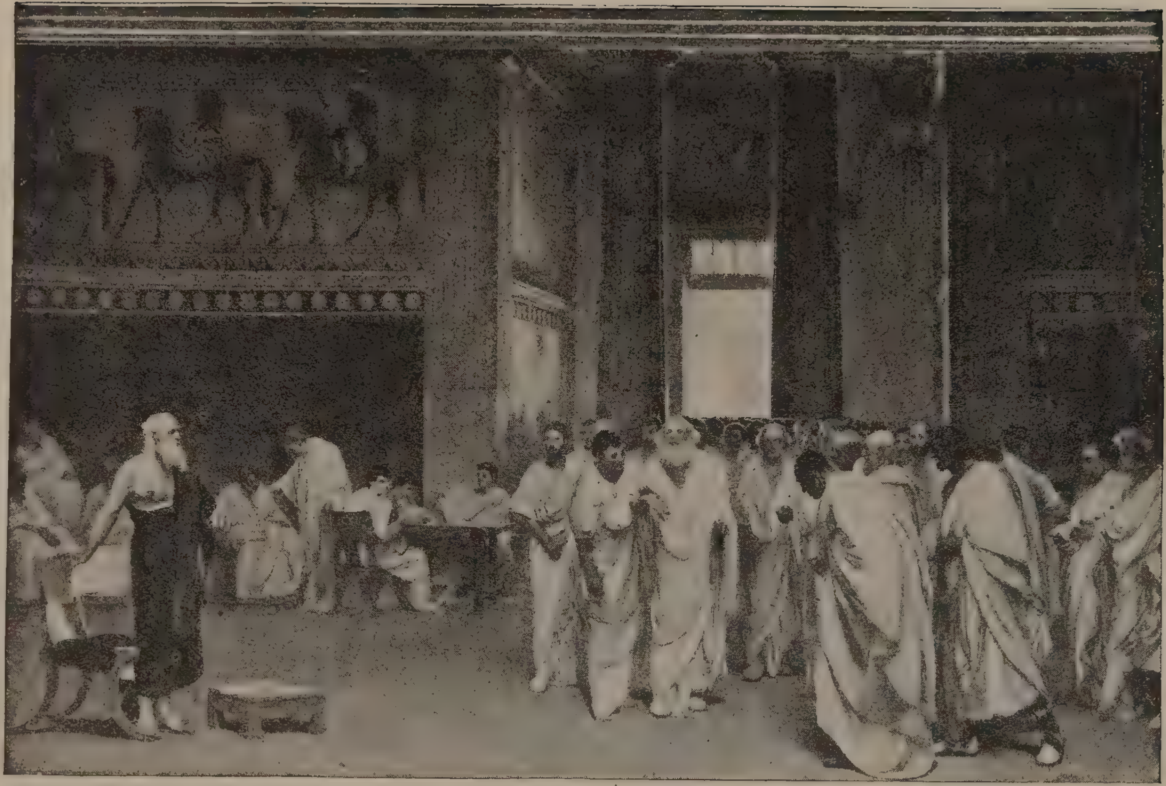


ruins of the Forum was the market and meeting-place of the people. Rome in those early days contained only about a thousand miserable, thatched huts, surrounded by a wall. Its glorious amphitheatres, baths, arches, and public buildings did not rise in their grandeur until the spoils of many nations began to enrich its people.

The Romans cherished many legends and fairy tales which ascribed a divine origin to the city. Some of these stories which picture the early Romans as very brave and very patriotic you may read in Lord Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*. At first the form of government was very simple. The State was made up of families; at the head of each was a father, and these fathers, or *patres*, met together in a ruling council or Senate, which means a meeting of the old men. The king was the president of the Senate, and he was also the high priest as well. All the males of the city met together when required in an assembly, just as they did in Athens. You must not forget that the only persons who had then any part in the government belonged to the families of the original settlers.

About 509 B.C. the kings were driven out, and the Romans set up a republic. At first they elected a president for one year, and called him a *Dictator;* but they soon came to the conclusion that no one man ought to have so much power. They therefore elected two yearly officers, who were known as *Prætors* or leaders, afterwards as *Consuls* or deliberators. In times of grave danger the Romans sometimes revived the office of dictator for a short period. The ordinary magistrates, however, were the consuls, who presided over the Senate and led the armies to battle. No law could be made without the assent of the Assembly of the people, who were called together in their *centuries*, according to their military array. This body was really an army; it was called together on the field of Mars by the blast of a trumpet.

The young republic had many difficulties to contend with. It was attacked by other Latin cities and by the Etruscans, who ravaged its lands and even captured the city. When they were driven back, internal troubles began and continued for two hundred years. The nobles, or patricians, as they



THE ROMAN SENATE, SHOWING THE BLIND SENATOR, APPIUS CLAUDIUS CÆCUS, BEING LED INTO THE SENATE HOUSE.

(*From the painting by Maccari.* *Anderson, photo.*)

were called, were rich and proud, and were determined to keep all the offices of the government in their own hands. The *plebs*, or crowd, had lost their farms during the wars, and were in great misery. They had no rights of citizenship, yet they were forced to serve in the army without pay, and also to give taxes to the State when required. To get the money for this purpose, many of them ran into debt, and when they could not pay their debts their creditors, under the law, had the right to imprison them or sell them into slavery. There were prisons full of plebeian debtors attached to most of the patrician houses.

So unbearable became the condition of the *plebs* that in the year 494 B.C. they left Rome altogether. They marched out in a body, and encamped on the Sacred Mount a few miles away, where they said they would found a new city of their own. The patricians had now lost those who worked for them, and they were in a great state of alarm. They could only persuade the plebs to come back by promising to appoint *tribunes*, whose duty it was to protect the people from the patricians. The persons of these tribunes were to be sacred, and their houses were to stand open night and day, so that any who were oppressed might flee to them for refuge. They were also given the right to *veto*—that is, forbid the making of any law which they considered unjust towards the plebs. But even while thus yielding, the Senate refused to allow the tribunes to enter their sacred presence. They had to shout their " veto " through the open door.

The story of the next two hundred years is the story of how patricians and plebeians struggled for the mastery. In the first fifty years the plebs tried to escape from their misery, and in the remaining one hundred and fifty years they strove to get an equal share in the government with the patricians. I need not describe these struggles in detail. By the year 366 the plebeians were victorious, as they always must be if they combine and act together. Certain laws were passed which helped the poor to pay their debts, gave portions of public land to them when they were out of debt, and ordained that thenceforward one of the consuls must always be a plebeian. Both might be plebeians if sufficient votes could be obtained, but one must be a plebeian in any case. It is worthy of note that in all these early struggles, determined as they were, there were very seldom riots or bloodshed. The plebeians used the law to reform the law, the only way in which a wise people ought ever to attempt to improve their condition.

Now while all these internal struggles were going on, the armies of Rome were making war upon their neighbours. While they were so engaged the Gauls, who then occupied North Italy, afterwards known as Hither Gaul, fell upon the Etruscans from the north. The Romans seized the opportunity to fall upon the same people from the south, and the consequence was that Etruria was conquered. This brought the Gauls into contact with the Romans, who suffered a great defeat and saw their city captured. A few brave Romans held out in the Capitol, the fortress of Rome, and so strongly did they defend it that the Gauls were beaten back time after time. They burned the rest of the city, and returned to their own country laden with plunder.

This invasion of the Gauls was not without its lesson for the Romans. They began seriously to develop their military strength, and to study the art of war. Rome was rebuilt, and the Gauls were pushed back again and again. From these struggles the Romans emerged as a powerful nation of soldiers. The Gauls were regarded as the common enemies of Italy, and the tribes looked upon Rome as their common defender. But when the Gauls were disposed of, a hardy tribe living amongst the Apennines, and known as the Samnites, began to make war on the allied cities. In three campaigns, which occupied, with brief intervals, half a century, the Romans struggled fiercely with these new foes. At length, in the year 290 B.C., the Samnites were crushed, and Rome found herself mistress of Central Italy. The first great landmark in her history had been reached.

Ten years later came that conflict with the Greek colonies of Italy which I described on page 49. You will remember that Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, came to the assistance of his kinsfolk, but that after winning some success he was defeated and driven from the country. The Greek colonies were captured one after the other, and Rome had no difficulty in making herself mistress of South Italy. The second landmark in her history had now been attained: Rome was mistress of all peninsular Italy. Her territory ran northward as far as the river Rubicon, beyond which lay Hither Gaul.

I said at the beginning of this lesson that the Romans took the other races of Italy into partnership. Perhaps you think that is a strange description of the result brought about by the warfare which I have described. But you must remember that though Rome made herself supreme over the Italian cities, she allowed them to manage their own local affairs. She retained the right of making war and peace and of coining money, and she required the cities to furnish soldiers for the wars. But under her eagles they felt themselves secure from their foes, and before long they were quite content with her rule. Rome built national highways, and set up colonies in all parts of Italy. A Roman *colonia* very often consisted of time-expired soldiers, who were given land in a conquered district. Though they acted in some ways as a garrison, they gradually came to have common interests with their new neighbours, and thus the land began to realize the blessings of unity.

There were now three classes of citizens in the peninsula —Roman citizens, Latins, and Italians. The Roman citizens alone possessed full rights of citizenship; they alone could meet in the Forum to make laws and elect consuls for the government of Italy as a whole. Latins had some rights, but the Italians outside their own cities had none at all. As the might of Rome grew, Roman citizenship became a distinction to be coveted; and any man who rendered special service to the republic might be made a Latin, or, if a Latin, a Roman. So you see that gradually the Romans did take the other races of Italy into partnership, though it did not become a full partnership until after the Social War described on page 76.

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*Read:* "The Rock of the Capitol," from Miss Yonge's *A Book of Golden Deeds* (Nelson); also *Stories of Rome in the Days of Old,* by A. O. Cooke (Jack).

## 10. HOW ROME BECAME MISTRESS OF THE WORLD.

ROME was now ready to begin her career of foreign conquest. If I were to ask you to guess what country outside the peninsula first became a Roman province, I think you would say the island of Sicily. A narrow strait lies between the toe of Italy and the northern shore of Sicily. Nowadays the Peninsular and Oriental steamers plying between Marseilles and Bombay sail through it, and passengers look northward to the frowning cliffs in which the mountains of Italy drop steeply to the sea, and southward to the green slopes of the Sicilian hills. There is a strong current in the strait, but big steamers are not much inconvenienced by it. In the old days galleys found the navigation difficult, and the rock Scylla on the Italian side and the whirlpool Charybdis opposite the harbour of Messina were a terror to the seamen. The ancients thought that they were monsters lying in wait for passing ships, and one of the most interesting stories of the *Odyssey* relates the adventures of Ulysses and his crew during their perilous passage of the strait.

You already know that there were Greek colonies on the east coast of Sicily. On its western coast Carthage, the strongest naval and colonizing Power of the time, had also set up colonies, and between the two there was almost constant warfare. Before Rome could subdue Sicily she had to overcome Carthage, and this was a task which tried her to the utmost, and occupied her for well-nigh one hundred and twenty years. Carthage was a town on the northern shore of Africa, near the site of Tunis. It was a colony of the Phœnicians, who, you will remember, lived on the coast of Syria, and were the greatest seamen and traders of ancient times. Carthage was colonized from Tyre about a hundred years before the foundation of Rome, and it became famous when Rome was small and poor. By means of trade the leading men of Carthage grew very rich, and they hired soldiers who won for them all the western half of the North African coast. As early as 735 B.C.—that is, eighteen years after Rome was founded—the Carthaginians set up colonies on the western coast of Sicily. During the troublous time when the Romans were fighting with Pyrrhus, and winning the Greek colonies on the mainland, the Carthaginians managed to make themselves all-powerful in the island.

The Romans were now ready for a trial of strength with the Carthaginians, and an excuse for beginning war was soon found. A Roman army was sent to Sicily, and it won immediate success. The Greek King of Syracuse was forced to ally himself with the Romans, and an important naval depôt of the Carthaginians was seized. The Senate now saw that it could not conquer its foe until it possessed a fleet capable of meeting that of Carthage. A Carthaginian ship which was wrecked on the Italian coast was taken as a model, and in sixty days no fewer than one hundred and thirty vessels were built. As the Romans had few skilled seamen, they decided to fight according to their land methods. They provided their galleys with drawbridges, and instructed their rowers to bring the ships close up to those of the enemy. The drawbridges were then let down, and the Roman soldiers rushed across them on to the enemy's decks, and engaged in a hand-to-hand contest. In this way they defeated the Carthaginians in two great naval battles within four years.

The Romans having won the mastery of the sea, now carried the war into Africa. The contest dragged on for years, but in 241 the Carthaginian fleet was so badly beaten that Sicily was yielded along with a money payment of two hundred talents of silver. Thus Rome won Sicily. She governed it by means of magistrates sent from Rome, and exacted tribute from the Sicilians, who were regarded as a subject people, and not as allies.

Peace now reigned for twenty-three years, but during that time a great statesman and general named Hamilcar appeared in Carthage. He hated Rome with all the strength of his nature, and trained an army for a new struggle with the foes of his country. His first objective was Spain. Before setting out for that country he made his youngest son, Hannibal,

HANNIBAL TAKING AN OATH TO FIGHT AGAINST THE ROMANS.

(*From the picture by Benjamin West, P.R.A.*)

swear an oath at the altar of Baal never to be the friend of the Roman people. Hannibal never forgot his childish oath, and, as we shall soon learn, became the bitterest foe that the Romans ever had to face.

In the course of nine years Hamilcar set up an empire in South Spain, but he fell in battle in the year 228 B.C. Seven years later, at the age of twenty, Hannibal became commander-in-chief of the Carthaginian armies. He pushed northward, and captured a city which was an ally of Rome, whereupon the Senate declared war against Carthage. Hannibal at once decided to carry the war into the enemy's country, and in order to do this crossed the Alps, probably by the pass of the Little St. Bernard. The story of this remarkable feat is full of interest, but it cannot be told here. Suffice it to say that when, at last, after five months of struggle and suffering, he reached the smiling plains of Italy, only 26,000 men remained out of his army of 102,000.

Hannibal had made a bold stroke, and for a time it looked as though he would succeed. A series of Roman disasters followed, and Hannibal broke one by one the armies sent against him. With the help of the Gauls he ravaged the country far and wide, and the Romans grew impatient. They gave him battle at Cannæ; but Hannibal lured them into a death-trap, and twenty-one tribunes, eighty senators, and over seventy thousand men fell in the horrible massacre. After the battle Hannibal sent to Carthage a bushel of the gold rings worn by the Roman knights who had been slain.

Rome was in dismay. One-fifth of all her citizens capable of bearing arms had fallen, and all South Italy had joined Hannibal. There were, however, gleams of hope. The Latin cities remained true, and Hannibal had not enough troops to besiege them. The Romans chose a general called Fabius, who decided to play for time. He refused to give battle in the open field, but remained in strong positions waiting for Hannibal to grow weaker and weaker. Because of his policy the Romans gave Fabius the name of *Cunctator*, or the Delayer, and from him we get the phrase "Fabian tactics."

For thirteen years Hannibal remained in Italy, but at last was driven into the toe of the peninsula. His race was nearly run, but during the last stages of the struggle he performed miracles of valour and generalship. On one occasion he actually hurled a javelin over the walls of Rome. The end was in sight when his brother Hasdrubal, who marched from Spain to his relief and crossed the Alps, was routed and slain. Hasdrubal's head was flung into the Carthaginian camp, and when Hannibal saw it he exclaimed, "Ah, Carthage, I behold thy doom!"

The Romans, under a young general named Scipio, were now making headway in Spain, and had begun to attack Carthage itself. Hannibal was summoned home to defend the city, but at the fatal battle of Zama (202 B.C.) Scipio inflicted upon him the only defeat of his life. Carthage was forced to surrender, pay a crushing tribute, and promise not to go to war without Rome's permission. During the peace Hannibal endeavoured to build up the strength of the city anew; but the Romans forced the Carthaginians to drive him out, and he sought refuge with Antiochus, who then governed a Greek kingdom extending from the Ægean Sea to beyond the Tigris. Antiochus received Hannibal with honour, and the great general remained with him until the day when he, too, was overthrown.

Rome had now overcome her great rival, and her thirst for conquest was redoubled. She had already cast covetous eyes upon Greece. Hannibal, when hard pressed, had made a treaty with Philip, King of Macedonia, a descendant of Alexander the Great. In the year 200 B.C. Philip had rashly attacked some of the allies of Rome, and the Senate decided to punish him. A Roman army invaded Greece, and its general declared himself the champion of Greek liberty. Philip was overthrown, but after his death his son carried on the struggle. One hundred and fifty-six years after the death of Alexander, the last king of Macedonia graced the triumph of a Roman general, and Greece became a Roman province.

For half a century Carthage had peace, and slowly she recovered her former prosperity. Many of the Romans regarded her rise with jealousy, and Cato the Censor was untiring in stirring up the people to put an end to the city before it became dangerous. He finished every speech that he made with the words, " Carthage must be destroyed." At last the Romans were persuaded to begin a war of destruction. The Carthaginians yielded at once, but that was not enough for the Romans. Under another Scipio they besieged the city, and when it fell after a desperate resistance they plundered it, burnt it, and razed it to the ground. Thus the city which had lasted seven hundred years was utterly destroyed (146 B.C.).

It was an easy step for the Romans to pass from Macedonia and Greece into Asia Minor. You will remember that Antiochus, whose capital at Antioch was a great seat of Greek art and learning, had given refuge to Hannibal when he had been driven from Carthage. The Ætolians of Greece, thinking themselves badly used by the Romans, invited Antiochus to come to their assistance. He agreed to do so, and thus brought about his ruin. The Romans easily defeated his small army at that shrine of Spartan heroism, Thermopylæ, and, following him home, made an end of his power (190 B.C.). Hannibal had now to seek another refuge. He fled to a Thracian kingdom on the shores of the Black Sea, and when he was pursued thither took poison, which he had long carried with him in a hollow ring.

The Romans were now masters of Greece and Asia Minor, but they did not take over the government of these countries. They were content to weaken the kings, and to play them off shrewdly the one against the other, until the people came to see that they were safe only when Rome took them under her protecting wing. When they reached that state of mind Rome stepped in, and ruled a people glad to submit. This was the course followed in Greece, and in Macedonia as well. In 133 B.C. a king of Asia Minor, who had been helped to power by the Romans, left them his kingdom by will, and Asia Minor became a Roman province. Macedonia had received direct Roman rule fifteen years previously.

While the East was subdued without much difficulty, Spain proved a very hard nut to crack. The rugged nature of the country and the bravery of its inhabitants made the struggle long and difficult, and for many years doubtful. Amongst the Lusitani, who inhabited what is now Portugal, a shepherd named Viriathus led his fellow countrymen against the Romans with such success that they were forced to make peace with him. The peace, however, did not last long. The Romans bribed some of the followers of the shepherd hero to murder him in his sleep.

The conquest of Spain was chiefly due to that Scipio who had destroyed Carthage. The city of Numantia, in the north of Spain, refused to open its gates to him, and he set about besieging it in a very thorough way. He dug a ditch round it, so that no one could enter or leave it, and then sat down for hunger to do its fell work. In despair, the people set fire to the place, and threw themselves into the flames. When the Romans broke in they found silence and desolation. Numantia was captured in 123 B.C., and Spain became a Roman province. By this time Rome was mistress of the civilized world.

*Read:* "Two Friends of Syracuse," and "Regulus," from Miss Yonge's *A Book of Golden Deeds* (Nelson).

## 11. THE GREATEST OF ALL THE ROMANS.

THERE is no better-known name in all history than that of Julius Cæsar. He was the greatest Roman who ever lived, and one of the world's greatest men. He won fame as a soldier, scholar, statesman, writer, orator, and engineer, and may be regarded as the founder of that empire which in its decay was to give birth to the nations of modern Europe. Greatly gifted by nature, "he scorned delights, and lived laborious days." Never was there a harder worker. It is said that he could read, write, and dictate at the same time, and that when making long journeys on horseback, he employed two secretaries, who rode on his right and left, to take down his letters. While crossing the Alps to fight one of his hardest campaigns he actually wrote two books on Latin grammar.

He was born in Rome on July 12, 102 B.C., of a noble family. His father and grandfather had both served the State in high offices, and his uncle Marius had saved Rome. It is interesting to note that the man who was afterwards to be the conqueror of Gaul had as his tutor, when a boy, a native of that country. Even in those early days Cæsar was distinguished in appearance, black-eyed, tall, gracious in speech, and graceful in movement. From his earliest years he was trained for public life, and all men saw in him one who was marked out for greatness.

He grew to manhood at a time when Rome was full of turmoil and strife. He was only twelve years of age when civil war broke out. At this time, though Rome was mistress of the civilized world and the tribute of many nations flowed into her coffers, the Roman race was fast becoming extinct. The sons of the Imperial City had perished on a hundred battlefields at the outposts of the empire. They had left their bones on every shore, and Rome was now inhabited by a motley race drawn from many lands. These citizens but poorly filled the place of the ancient heroes.

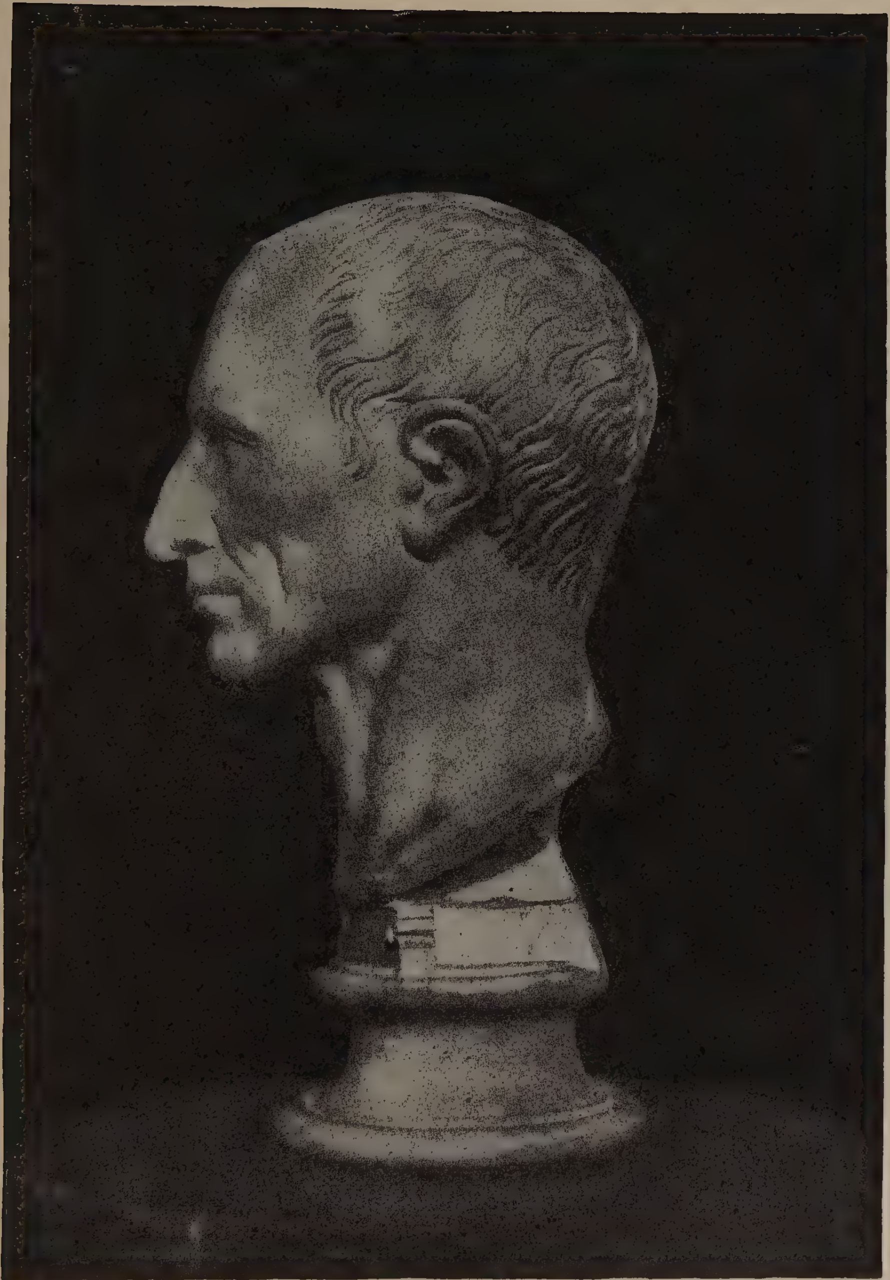
During the wars Italy had been devastated by fire and sword, and many of the little farms which formerly covered the country had been swept away. The people, unable to make a living on their homesteads, flocked to Rome. The nobles, and other adventurers who went to the wars as poor soldiers, returned with enormous riches—the spoils of many sacked cities. These rich men bought up great estates, which were tilled by the unpaid labour of captive slaves. A new nobility, founded on money alone, had thus grown up, and by flattering and feeding and amusing the citizens of Rome, had made itself all-powerful. The rich men who wished to be appointed governors of provinces, from which they could draw still greater wealth, won the votes of the citizens by providing them with costly feasts and games. Those who were already engaged in robbing the provinces, commended themselves to the Romans by sending them gifts of grain, which was distributed gratis. This was another reason why the small farmers could not make a living. When the governors were charged with robbery and injustice, it was easy to bribe the judges, who were only too anxious to have a share of the spoils.

There still remained, however, some honest men in the city; and these, seeing that Rome would soon perish in the midst of civil strife, strove to save her by giving public land to the people and setting them up once more as farmers. But these far-seeing statesmen were either slain or driven out, and the corrupt nobles reigned supreme. A few years before the birth of Cæsar a new terror threatened Rome. The fierce, warlike tribes of Northern Europe now began to move towards Italy. Half a million men from what is now North Germany marched southward, leaving ruin and dismay in their track. Six Roman armies tried in vain to stay their advance, and as a last resource the rulers of Rome besought Marius, Cæsar's uncle, to save the empire once more. In two terrible battles he slaughtered the barbarians, and was hailed as the "third founder of the city."

Marius was a friend of the people, but a monster of cruelty. He was strongly in favour of uniting all the Italian peoples against their foes by giving them those rights of citizenship which up to this time had been strictly reserved to the citizens of Rome. When the rulers of Rome refused this wise measure, many of the Italian cities rose in arms with Marius at their head, and what is known as the Social War began. Fierce civil strife raged; awful destruction was wrought, and the land flowed with blood. In the end the rulers of Rome were forced to give rights of citizenship to the Italians.

Meanwhile, when Cæsar was fourteen years of age, a great warrior named Mithridates arose in Asia Minor, and proclaimed himself the deliverer of Asia from the Roman yoke. Sulla, the leader of the Roman nobles, was chosen to lead an army against him; but Marius wrested the command from his rival, whereupon Sulla entered Rome with his army, and civil war for the first time raged within the walls of the city. Marius was driven into exile, and Sulla, in five campaigns, overcame the would-be deliverer of Asia.

While these campaigns were in progress, Cinna, one of the



BUST OF JULIUS CÆSAR.

consuls who ruled at Rome, recalled Marius, who entered the city at the head of the very dregs of Italy. He took a fearful vengeance on his foes, and, accompanied by a body of slaves, pointed his finger at every noble whom he wished to be slain. When most of his foes had thus been removed, he had himself declared consul, and eighteen days later died "drunk with blood and wine."

This year was of great importance in Cæsar's life. He had seen his uncle Marius compelled to fly for his life, and now he saw him return and take vengeance on his enemies. The boy was but fifteen years of age; but Marius, whom he greatly admired, made him a priest of Jupiter. In the following year he married Cornelia, daughter of Cinna, the consul who had recalled Marius. In this way he became bound up with the fortunes of the people's party. In the year 83 B.C., when Cæsar was nineteen years of age, Sulla returned to Rome, swept aside the remnants of Marius's party, and made himself master of Italy. It was now the turn of the friends of the people to fear and tremble. Six thousand of them were butchered in cold blood, and all through Italy there was horrible slaughter. Cinna was amongst the slain, and Cæsar's life was in danger. He was ordered to divorce his wife; but he refused, and fled to the hills. By the influence of friends he was pardoned, and allowed to return to Rome. Though Sulla spared him, he said that he would one day be the ruin of the nobles, and that in him were "the makings of many a Marius."

Cæsar now saw that he would be wise to withdraw himself from Rome. He therefore left the city, and served with the army in the East. He soon proved himself a valiant soldier. In the year 80 B.C. he won the "civic crown," the Victoria Cross of those days, for saving a soldier's life. When Sulla died in 75 B.C. he returned to Rome, eager to win fame in the councils of the city. His enemies were in power, and he had to walk warily. Soon, however, he attracted attention as an orator, and wishing to rise to eminence in that art, set off to Rhodes, where a famous teacher lived. On the way he was taken prisoner by pirates, but was afterwards ransomed. He then collected some vessels, seized the pirates, and put them to death.

At Rhodes he studied diligently, and as a result became one of the foremost orators of his day. He returned to Rome about the year 73 B.C., and found that he had been elected to office in his absence. Soon afterwards, Italy was once more ravaged by war. A party of gladiators escaped from a training school, and took refuge in the crater of Vesuvius. To them flocked slaves, peasants, and pirates, and soon their leader Spartacus was strong enough to defeat the armies sent against him, and to overrun the whole peninsula. He was finally killed by Crassus in a desperate battle. Part of the rebel host escaped, but Pompey met it near the Alps and cut it to pieces.

Pompey entered Rome in triumph. He had utterly overcome Mithridates, who had again attempted the task of freeing Asia from the Romans, and on the way home had put an end to the army of Spartacus. For two days Rome made holiday to rejoice in his triumph. Before his chariot marched three hundred and twenty-four captive princes, and the spoils of the campaign amounted to twenty thousand talents. Pompey was now at the height of his power, and his only rival was Crassus. Both of these men were leaders of the people, and they agreed to combine their forces.

Such was the state of things in the year 70 B.C., which marks the beginning of Cæsar's career. He was now thirty-two years of age, had distinguished himself as a soldier, and had proved his talent. In the following year he became a senator—that is, a member of the ruling council of Rome—and two years later was elected chief priest of the city. The populace regarded him as the coming man, and in the year 60 B.C. he formed a league with Pompey and Crassus. This was known as the Triumvirate, or the rule of three men. To cement this union, Pompey married Cæsar's only daughter, Julia. The whole Roman world was now in the hands of the Triumvirate, and they divided all power between them.

While Pompey remained in Rome and Crassus went to rule in Syria, Cæsar was appointed governor of Hither Gaul

—that is, of Northern Italy—and of the Roman province of Transalpine Gaul, which lay to the west of the encircling Alps. The district is still known as *Provence*. I cannot in these pages tell you fully the very interesting story of Cæsar's campaigns of conquest in Further Gaul. He conquered the whole of what is now France, and wrote a full account of his wars in easy, graceful, and vigorous Latin, which schoolboys read to this day. The Gauls were Celts, consisting of many tribes of fierce warriors inhabiting what is now France and Belgium.

In order to reach Gaul from Italy, Cæsar had to cross the Alps into the modern Switzerland. The Helvetii of Switzerland, which is still known as the Helvetian republic, were a very warlike people, who were on the point of leaving their rugged hills and sterile valleys with the object of establishing themselves on the rich plains of Gaul. In order to reach their promised land by the easiest route they intended to march through the Roman province of Transalpine Gaul. Cæsar learned their plans, and by forced marches made his way into Gaul, where he destroyed the bridge over the Rhone. The Helvetii asked him to let them pass through his province, but he refused; and when they made attempts to cross the Rhone by means of rafts and pontoons, he beat them off. They then tried to march across the Jura Mountains, but Cæsar was too much for them, and at length they were forced to yield. Only about one-third of those who set out for Gaul ever returned home again.

Thus began a series of fierce wars, which occupied Cæsar for seven years. He reduced the whole of Gaul, carried the Roman arms into Germany for the first time, twice invaded Britain, which up to then had been unknown to the Italians except by name, and not only subdued the three hundred tribes which lay beyond the Alps, but made them contented with his rule. It will interest you to learn that the Belgæ, who give their name to Belgium, were described by Cæsar as the bravest people of Gaul.

When most of the tribes surrendered, the Nervii, who occupied the country between the Sambre and the Scheldt, determined to oppose Cæsar to the death. On the wooded banks of the Sambre near to the region across which the British fought the Battle of Mons (August 1914), the Nervii routed the Roman cavalry, and made an unexpected attack on the infantry. In the fierce struggle that followed the twelfth and seventh legions were almost surrounded. The men were dismayed, and almost on the point of giving way, when Cæsar snatched a shield from a soldier, and calling upon his centurions by name, fought with such spirit that he restored confidence, and in the end won a complete victory. The slaughter was terrible; out of sixty thousand fighting men of the Nervii there were only five hundred left. Cæsar treated the survivors with compassion.

By the year 52 B.C. Cæsar had thoroughly subdued Gaul, and thereafter he was its civilizer. He built roads, introduced Roman laws, institutions, manners, and customs, which the Gauls accepted so completely that they became the children of Rome, and afterwards supplied her with some of her greatest men. His conquest of Gaul is the greatest instance in Roman history of the manner in which Rome not only subdued but bound a conquered country to herself.

*Read:* Shakespeare's *Julius Cæsar,* Acts I. and II.

## 12. THE "ONE ONLY MAN."

WHILE he was fighting in Gaul, Cæsar never lost sight of what was going on in Rome. He had been sent to Gaul for five years, but he wished to remain longer, in order to make money with which to pay off his debts and to buy the favour of the Romans. Another five years' command was granted to him. He had trained an army that knew no mind or will but his own, and when opportunity offered he meant to use it for his own ends. Meanwhile, he sent home to his friends rich spoils, which they distributed amongst the people and

THE FIRST INVASION OF BRITAIN BY JULIUS CÆSAR.

(*From the cartoon by Edward Armitage, R.A.*)

thus made him popular. Rome at this time was in confusion. Every year the elections for consuls produced a war of parties. There were constant riots, and Pompey found that his power was on the wane. When Pompey fell, Cæsar became the " one only man " of Rome.

Let me tell you how Pompey fell. The strong link between Pompey and Cæsar was Julia, wife of Pompey, and daughter of Cæsar. She died in 54 B.C., and in the following year Crassus perished in a battle beyond the Euphrates. Pompey knew that a trial of strength between himself and Cæsar was soon to come. He feared the army which Cæsar had trained, and he set his wits to work to find a means of opposing it. The nobles of Rome made common cause with him; for they, too, were alarmed by Cæsar's victories, and feared that he would soon be master of the Roman world.

In the year 50 B.C. matters came to a climax. A law was passed, ordering Cæsar to resign his office and disband his army before he appeared in Rome to sue for the consulship. Two of Cæsar's friends—Antony and Cassius Longinus—were driven from the Senate, and they made their way to Ravenna, where Cæsar had his camp, and demanded his protection. Cæsar at once appealed to his legions; they gladly agreed to fight for him, and he began his march on Rome. It is said that when he reached the Rubicon, the stream which divided Hither Gaul from Italy, he paused to think. To pass this stream was to make war upon Rome. At last he shouted, " The die is cast," and plunged into the stream, followed by his soldiers.

Pompey had boasted that he had only to stamp his foot, and an army would spring from the ground. He stamped; but no army arose, and he was forced to flee to Greece without striking a blow. In sixty days Cæsar was master of Italy. He then resolved to crush the legions of Pompey in Spain, after which he intended to deal with Pompey in Greece. He said he was going to fight an army without a general, and that when he returned he would march against a general without an army. He carried out his programme to the letter. The legions in Spain were overcome in the course of nine months, and in 48 B.C. Pompey was defeated at Pharsalia in Greece. He sought refuge in Egypt, whither Cæsar followed him, only to learn that his rival had been treacherously slain. It is said that when Pompey's head was brought to him, Cæsar wept at the fate of his son-in-law and former friend.

Cæsar now made himself master of Egypt, and placed the beautiful Cleopatra on its throne. Marching into Syria, he humbled the son of Mithridates so quickly that he was able to send to Rome the briefest and most satisfactory dispatch ever written by a general—*Veni*, *vidi*, *vici* (" I came, I saw, I conquered "). The friends of Pompey raised armies, but they could not stand before Cæsar's conquering sword. In 45 B.C. the curtain fell upon his victories. For fourteen years he had been at war or preparing for war. Now his fighting days were over ; he was master of the Roman Empire, all but the city of Rome, which was now eager to greet its new lord.

Rome received him with open arms. For four days the city rejoiced as it had never done before. Cæsar rode in triumph to the Capitol ; there were great gladiatorial shows, every citizen received a present, and twenty-two thousand tables were spread for the populace to eat and drink. Cæsar did not sully his return with cruelty. None of his enemies was put to death, and the Senate gladly heaped honours upon him. He was created Dictator, and his statue was set up in the Capitol opposite to that of Jupiter.

He had now only six months to live, but in that brief time he showed himself as great in peace as he had been in war. He found Rome corrupt to the core. The government of the city was carried on by bribery, and every kind of wickedness was rampant. He set himself to purge Rome, and to give it order and good and honest government.

He reformed the Senate, and gave seats in it to leading Gauls. He revised the calendar. He relieved distress amongst the poor by sending eighty thousand of them to rebuild destroyed cities in Greece and Africa. He cut down by over one-half the number of persons who received free grain from the city, punished crimes of violence with great severity, and made laws to check luxury. He formed a plan for digging a new channel for the Tiber and draining the neighbouring marshes. He paved the streets anew, encouraged oratory by offering prizes for the recitation of pieces at the theatres, and while crowning the victors with wreaths, greeted them with verses which he himself composed on the spur of the moment. He did all this and more in six short months, and yet never for an hour was he forgetful of the Empire's outposts along the far-off waters of the Rhine, Danube, and Euphrates.

We now come to the last chapter of his life, the story which Shakespeare has set forth with wondrous art in his tragedy of *Julius Cæsar*. It is the fate of those who rise above their fellows to inspire envy and hatred in unworthy men. Cæsar could not help making enemies, and when it became evident that he was desirous of being king in name as well as in fact, these enemies made use of their opportunity. They stirred up men who were sincerely attached to the old form of republican government, and honestly believed that liberty was in danger.

A plot was formed to assassinate him, and on 15th March in the year 44 B.C., when he was seated in the Senate House, one of the conspirators presented him with a petition, while Mark Antony, his lieutenant, was detained in conversation by another conspirator. Cæsar refused the petition, and daggers gleamed on every hand. For a moment the great soldier defended himself with his only weapon, a steel pen. Then seeing amidst the murderers Brutus, whom he loved and trusted, he drew his toga over his head. With the cry, "And thou too, Brutus!" he fell dead at the base of Pompey's statue.

So perished Cæsar. He had faults and vices, but he was a very great man. Unlike Napoleon, who comes nearest to him, he was a statesman before he was a soldier. The empire which he founded lasted for four hundred years, while that of the great French general crumbled to pieces in four years. He was heroic in war; he could remember most things, but he never could remember the names of his enemies. Though he was a ruthless warrior, he was noble in his mercy to the fallen foe. Unlike most of the soldiers of history, he loved letters, and was an accomplished writer. As an orator he was second

MARK ANTONY'S FUNERAL ORATION OVER THE DEAD BODY OF CÆSAR.

(*From the painting by J. D. Court.*)

only to Cicero, and in his own writings he was a model of simplicity and clearness. Shakespeare puts the following words into the mouth of Mark Antony as he stood by the body of the murdered Cæsar :—

"O world, thou wast the forest to this hart ;
And this, indeed, O world, the heart of thee ! "

*Read :* Shakespeare's *Julius Cæsar,* Acts III., IV., and V.

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## 13. THE GRANDEUR THAT WAS ROME.

THE story of the Roman Empire after Cæsar's day divides itself into two parts. First, we have a record of dominion such as the world had never before seen, and then the long and confused story of decline. We shall see the empire split in twain and fall to pieces, and as it does so, the states of modern Europe arise on its ruins.

The murder of Cæsar ushered in twelve years of tumult and civil strife. Cæsar had left as his heir Octavius, his grandnephew, a boy of eighteen, who was then being educated in Greece. While Octavius was making his way to Rome, Mark Antony so wrought upon the feelings of the people that they drove the conspirators from the city. The soldiers who had shared the hardships and glories of Cæsar's Gallic campaigns gathered round Antony, and besought him to avenge the death of their great general. Antony was an ambitious man, and he hoped by means of this army to place himself in Cæsar's seat. He had, however, not reckoned with Octavius. Though the latter was only in his teens, he was wise and cautious, and, when he arrived in Rome, took pains to make himself popular. The Senate warmly supported him, and Cicero, the great orator, denounced Antony in a series of fiery orations.

Antony had obtained command of the army in Macedonia, and with it he invaded Italy. Octavius, at the head of Cæsar's veterans, defeated him, and, returning to Rome with his troops, was made consul. Then, having secured real power, he made peace with Antony and also with Lepidus, who, as governor of part of Spain and Gaul, had an army at his command. Thus the second triumvirate was formed. It went to work as Sulla had done in the year 83, and put to death all its enemies, including the golden-tongued Cicero who had denounced Antony.

Having thus made themselves secure at Rome, the three masters of the city sent an army to Macedonia, where Brutus and Cassius, the leading murderers of Cæsar, had raised forces to resist them. At Philippi Brutus and Cassius were defeated, and both perished. Then Octavius and Antony divided the empire between them, the former taking the West, the latter the East. As for that " slight, unmeritable man " Lepidus, he was fobbed off with Africa—that is, the district round Carthage—but was soon deprived of his command and sent back to Rome.

Antony made his headquarters at Tarsus, and set up as an eastern despot. He summoned Cleopatra, Queen of Egypt, to explain why she had supported Cassius; and, falling a victim to her charms, went back with her to Egypt, where he wasted the winter in idle dalliance. He presented her with several provinces, and made her real ruler of the East. By this time Octavius had become master of Italy, and the Romans were disgusted with Antony's behaviour in Egypt. Before long war broke out between the rivals, and in the year 31 B.C. their naval forces met in battle at Actium, off the west coast of Greece. Cleopatra, who accompanied her fleet, deserted with her ships early in the day, and Antony basely followed her. Octavius then invaded Egypt, where he met with no resistance. Antony in despair stabbed himself, and Cleopatra committed suicide by permitting a poisonous serpent to sting her. She was the last queen of Egypt; after her death it became a Roman province.

When Octavius returned to Rome the Senate conferred upon him the title *Augustus* as a mark of high honour. He was now, at the age of thirty-two, master of the Roman world, which stretched from the Euphrates on the east to the Atlantic

Ocean on the west, and as far south as the deserts of Africa. Within these bounds were a hundred millions of people, comprising about a hundred different nations, each speaking its own language and worshipping its own gods. These hundred millions of people were held in thrall by an army of 350,000 men, while ten thousand Prætorian guards kept watch over Rome, and guarded the person of Augustus. In his time Rome enjoyed the blessings of peace, and was able to devote herself to the work of civilizing and developing her empire. Augustus knew that the empire was as widely extended as it could be with safety, and he left directions to his successors not to increase the Roman dominion any further. After his time only two countries were permanently added to the empire —Britain and Dacia. The latter country included what is now the eastern part of Hungary, the country of Rumania, and a strip of Russia.

A great change took place in the government of Rome during the time of Augustus. The republic which had lasted so long came to an end, and a monarchy, or the rule of one man, was established in its place. The Romans had returned to that form of government which existed in the very early days of their city. They were tired of the wars and tumults brought about by ambitious consuls, and they yearned for a reign of peace. They were ready to entrust the government to Augustus, because he was the man who had restored order out of chaos.

At first the Senate wished to appoint him Dictator, but he refused a title which had hateful associations to many Romans. Nor did he wish for the title of king, though he meant to be king in every sense of the term. He took the title of *Imperator*, which means the holder of a military command conferred upon him by the people. This command could only be given to him for a period, so every ten years Augustus went through the farce of laying down his office and being re-elected by the people. Gradually he combined in his own person all the offices of State, and thus, without changing the forms of the old republic, made himself emperor.

The reign of Augustus was full of peace and prosperity. The provinces were well ruled, and many of their inhabitants were admitted to Roman citizenship. Augustus had no liking for the grandeur of palaces or the trappings of State. He lived simply, and his toga was woven by his wife and her maidens. Under his auspices the worship of the gods was revived. His chosen companions were men of letters. Virgil composed his *Æneid* in honour of Augustus, and Horace addressed poems to him. In his reign Ovid also sang, and Livy wrote his great history of Rome. Art, literature, learning, and education flourished in his reign, and thereafter, when men wished to speak of a period distinguished for its great writers, they talked of an *Augustan age*.

Augustus was the Pericles of Rome. He boasted that he "found the city brick and left it marble." When his work was completed Rome was the marvel of the earth. The Capitoline Hill was crowned with noble buildings, and looking down from it one saw a vast assemblage of temples, colonnades, palaces, and sacred groves. In the valley at its foot was the Golden Milestone, from which all distances in the empire were reckoned; the Forum, the heart and centre of the city; the Regia, or palace of the chief pontiff; the Temple of Vesta, on whose altar burned the sacred fire; and the Senate House, fronted by the rostra, or beaks of ships, from which the Roman orators addressed the assembled multitudes. Hard by was the temple of Castor and Pollux, with its wonderful columns; and everywhere one could see marble arches and statues. On the Palatine Hill stood the great temple of Apollo, with the trophies of all nations hanging in its porticoes; and in an adjoining building was a famous library filled with Greek and Roman books. Amidst the public buildings on this hill were many noble residences surrounded by beautiful gardens.

The great historian Gibbon opens his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* with the reign of Augustus. Brilliant as it was, its glory already showed the autumnal tint of approaching decay. Already in the year 9 A.D. the barbarians had inflicted a terrible defeat on the Roman legions in Germany. Under vigorous rule the peace of Rome appeared to be settling down upon that country, which seemed likely to become as thoroughly romanized as Gaul itself. But an attempt by Varus,

AUGUSTUS LEAVING THE SENATE.

(*From the picture by Sir Alma Tadema, R.A.*)

the governor of the province, to introduce the Roman language and the Roman laws had so angered certain Germanic tribes that, under Arminius, they fell upon the Roman army, and wiped it out. Rome was dismayed when the news reached it; and for days Augustus strode to and fro, beating his head against the wall of his house, and crying, "Varus, Varus, give me back my legions!" Do what he might, he could not restore Roman authority in Germany. The men of the north were gaining unity and strength even then, and Rome in the end was to go down in blood and anguish before them.

It was the military despotism which Augustus set up that proved the undoing of the empire. The army had made him, and in later times it made and unmade emperors at its will. It bestowed the *imperium* on whomsoever it would—on plain, blunt soldier, gentle thinker, madman, and monster alike. The emperors and the army between them governed Rome by fear and favour, by the sword, and by bribing the people with "bread and circuses." The fierce, indomitable courage which had made Romans the conquerors of the world was sapped away by luxury and corruption, and as time went on the army which had made and unmade emperors became a horde of hirelings, fighting for wages and booty, and careless of the fate of Rome.

I shall not trouble you with a lengthened account of the successors of Augustus. Tiberius, who followed him, ruled at first with much ability, but proved to be a gloomy tyrant, who became suspicious of the best citizens of Rome, and put many of them to death. His own sudden death in the year 37 A.D. came as a relief even to the members of his own family. The great event of his reign was the crucifixion of Jesus Christ at Jerusalem.

Caligula, who followed, was a madman, who made his favourite horse a consul and gave him a golden manger. He executed without mercy all who displeased him, and on one occasion wished that the people of Rome had but one neck, so that he could cut it off at a single blow. Nero, who succeeded him, was also a madman. His reign was notorious for fiendish cruelty. He put his wife and mother to death, and in the midst of a great fire, which destroyed a large part of Rome, chanted a poem to the music of his lyre. He bitterly persecuted the Christians, and it is said that St. Peter and St. Paul were martyred in his time. The only good that can be said of him is that he rebuilt the city, and gave it broad streets instead of its narrow, winding lanes.

Vespasian, the next emperor, was a sturdy Roman of the old type, who sought to make the citizens honest and frugal as of yore. His son, Titus, captured Jerusalem during the lifetime of his father; and you may still see on his arch at Rome a representation of the seven-branched candlestick from the Temple being carried at his triumph. When he succeeded to the throne he was known as the "Delight of Mankind." The great circus known as the Colosseum, in which the Romans gathered in their thousands to watch the death-struggles of gladiators, was completed in his time. It was during his reign that Agricola conquered nearly all Britain, and made it a Roman province.

Domitian, who succeeded him, was another madman, whose chief amusement was spearing flies with a pin. When this monster passed away the empire was ruled for more than eighty years by the "five good emperors," whose reigns covered the palmiest days of Rome. Nerva, the first of them, gave the plebs lands, and taught them to live by their own toil and not on the spoils of the provinces. Trajan, who followed, was a Spaniard, a great general, and a great builder. He it was who conquered Dacia, and added it to the empire. So thoroughly Romanized did Dacia become that the inhabitants call themselves Romani, or Rumanians, to this day. Large numbers of Italians settled down in the country; Dacians were admitted to the army, and on one occasion ten thousand Dacian gladiators fought in the Colosseum at Rome. The Rumanians still call snowdrifts *Trajan's walls*, and the Milky Way, *Trajan's road.*

The name of the next emperor, Hadrian, is well known to you, because he visited Britain in the year 120 A.D., and built a wall from Bowness on the Solway to Wallsend on the Tyne. Parts of this wall still remain. Hadrian was a great traveller, and there was no part of his wide empire that he did not visit. He was continually engaged in superintending the government of the provinces and in erecting splendid buildings.

You will remember that Augustus left directions to his successors not to extend the empire any further. Hadrian was wise enough to see that Rome had reached the limit of her power. He therefore abandoned some of the distant conquests of Trajan, and busied himself in securing the boundaries of the empire as it was in the time of Augustus. The building of the great wall between the Solway and the Tyne was part of this policy. He was content with South Britain, and had no intention of trying to subdue the Caledonian tribes.

His successor, Antoninus Pius, was a lover of justice and religion, and he laboured hard in the work of giving peace, order, and civilization to the empire. Marcus Aurelius, who followed him, was a gentle philosopher, who wrote one of the world's most famous books—a series of sincere and tender thoughts which give comfort to men even now. He, too, desired peace at home and abroad, but this was denied him. The German tribes made many and fierce onsets on the boundaries of the empire, and Marcus Aurelius was forced to take the field against them. He died during one of the campaigns.

We now reach the reign of his son Commodus, a weak, vicious boy, in whose time the army became all-powerful. The Prætorian Guards at Rome actually put the imperial power up to auction, and sold it to the highest bidder. In the provinces the armies elected their favourite officers as emperors, and the whole empire was distracted with strife. When a camel in the desert shows signs of weakness, the vultures gather round it, ready to tear it to pieces as soon as it falls. So it was with the Roman Empire at this time. While internal disorders were rapidly sapping away its strength, the fierce barbarians of the North were swooping down upon its frontiers, and were soon to be strong enough to destroy it altogether.

In the year 193 A.D. Septimius Severus, a general in Germany, defeated his rivals, and was proclaimed emperor by his troops. Though he was a Cæsar of the Decline, he restored for a while the glory of Roman arms. He made an expedition against the Parthians, and in the year 198 captured Ctesiphon, which, you will remember, was occupied by the British troops in 1917 when they were advancing towards Bagdad. The name of Severus is probably familiar to you, for he figures in British history. In the year 208 he visited Britain, and, after making a campaign against the Caledonians, died at York.

His eldest son, Caracalla, was with him when he died. He succeeded his father, but proved to be one of the worst tyrants who ever disgraced a throne. He gave the right of Roman citizenship to the provinces, but he only did so in order to tax them for the upkeep of his army. You may still see in Rome the magnificent arch which he erected to commemorate his father's victories.

Alexander Severus, who followed him, was a wise and studious man, who was proclaimed emperor when seventeen years of age by the Prætorian Guards. He strongly favoured the Christians, and inscribed the Golden Rule above the portals of his palace. The German tribes and the Persians felt the force of his heavy hand, and he did much to restore discipline in the army. He was slain by mutinous troops in his twenty-ninth year, and his mother perished with him.

And now the barbarian tribes and the Persians invaded the empire on every side. A hundred and sixty years after the death of Alexander the Roman Empire was split in twain, and by the year 476 the Western Empire had finally passed away.

*Read:* Lew Wallace's *Ben Hur* or Sienkiewicz's *Quo Vadis* (Nelson).

## 14. GOTH, HUN, AND VANDAL.

THE coloured map between pages 104 and 105 shows you the full extent of the Roman Empire in the days of Trajan, about a hundred years after the death of Augustus. You will notice that nearly the whole of Europe to the east of the Rhine and to the north and east of the Danube and the Dniester lay outside the Roman Empire. The Romans were never masters of the great plain which stretches from the low shores of Holland into Asia. If you look at the map you will see the names of some of the many fierce tribes which occupied this non-Roman part of Europe in the second century after the birth of Christ. We know very little about the early history of many of these peoples, and in a small book on a vast subject I must be content to omit any reference to most of them. But there are certain tribes, or groups of tribes, of which I must say something if I am to describe the break-up of the Roman Empire.

Notice the names of the tribes which have a coast-line on the North Sea. First of all come the Franks, who afterwards gave their name to France. In what is now Jutland lived the Jutes; south of them the Angles, and still farther south the Saxons. These three tribes, as you know, afterwards invaded Britain, and their descendants are known as the English. South-east of the Saxons was the home of the Vandals, who passed out of history in the sixth century. South-east of the Vandals you find the Goths, who were closely akin to the Vandals, and who also disappeared in the course of time, though not until they had made themselves the scourge of Europe. The only other tribe to which I must direct your attention is that of the Huns, who in the second century were in possession of what is now South Russia.

The Goths, Huns, and Vandals played the largest part in breaking up the Roman Empire. You will best learn how the empire fell into ruin if I tell you briefly the story of three great barbaric leaders—Alaric the Goth, Attila the Hun, and Genseric the Vandal.

Early in the third century A.D. we find the Goths settled on the Black Sea between the Don and the Danube. The eastern portion of the nation came to be known as the Ostro-Goths or East Goths, and the western portion as the Visigoths or West Goths. About the middle of the third century the West Goths pushed through the Roman province of Dacia and crossed the Danube. The Roman Emperor Decius set off with an army to meet them. They marched south, and he followed in their rear. Suddenly they turned upon him. Decius was slain,

THE BUILDING OF HADRIAN'S WALL.

(*From the design for a fresco by William Bell Scott, H.R.S.A.*)

This picture illustrates a scene during the building of the Great Wall which formed the northern boundary of Roman Britain in the days of the Emperor Hadrian. It extended from Wallsend on the Tyne right across the Northumbrian moors, thence to Bowness on the Solway Firth, a distance of nearly seventy miles. The wall was at least sixteen feet high and eight feet thick. Every four miles there were forts, and between them watch-houses within call of each other. The wall was built A.D. 121. About ninety years later—namely, in A.D. 210—the wall was repaired and new fortifications were added by Severus.

and for the next eighteen years the West Goths swarmed over the Balkan peninsula and Asia Minor, destroying and plundering wherever they went. They burnt the temple of Diana at Ephesus and sacked Athens. At length, however, they were overcome by the Emperor Claudius at Naissus, the modern Nish, in Serbia (269); but his successor was forced to make a treaty with them which left them in undisturbed possession of the north bank of the Danube, and guaranteed them large gifts of money each year. Thereafter there was peace between the Goths and the Romans for a hundred years, and during that time the West Goths were converted to Christianity.

Meanwhile the East Goths were becoming powerful. In the year 375 the Huns, of whom we shall read later, moved westward against them in a vast invading horde and reduced them to slavery. The West Goths fled, and were allowed to cross the Danube and settle on its southern bank. In 378 these Goths and the Romans came into conflict, and a Roman emperor, Valens, fell on the battlefield at Adrianople. Peace, however, was restored and lasted seventeen years. Then arose Alaric, the first great German general who captured the city of Rome.

He was born about the year 370 on an island at the mouth of the Danube. Of noble descent, he early proved himself a leader of men. In his twenty-fourth year we find him serving as a general in the army of the able and valiant Emperor Theodosius, who had pacified the Goths and had enlisted forty thousand of them beneath his banner. Theodosius died in 395, leaving the empire to be divided between his two imbecile sons, the one taking the western half, the other the eastern half. When the new emperor began to reign, Alaric hoped to be made one of the chief commanders, but was disappointed. The Goths were discontented, chiefly because the "gifts" which they had been receiving from the Romans for many years had been stopped. The consequence was that they hoisted Alaric on a shield, according to their custom, and proclaimed him king. He promised to win for them new kingdoms, and he was as good as his word.

Alaric first led his Goths towards Constantinople; but turned aside from it and marched through Thrace and Macedonia, plundering and ravaging as he went. Then he pushed through the pass of Thermopylæ, which had been left unguarded, and entered Greece, where he committed frightful ravages. Towns and villages were burned, the men were murdered, and the women and children carried off as slaves. Before long he reached Athens, but forbore to destroy its monuments of ancient art. Then he descended upon Peloponnesus, and captured every city in it. Corinth, Argos, and Sparta were all plundered.

He wintered in Peloponnesus, and in the following spring was attacked not only by the forces of the Eastern Empire but by those of the West, under the command of a Vandal named Stilicho, who was also a Roman general. Stilicho drove back the Goths, but they escaped with their plunder and began to prepare for an attack on Rome itself. For three years Alaric remained quiet, arming and drilling his followers and waiting for his opportunity.

In the autumn of the year 400, when Stilicho was absent on a campaign in Gaul, Alaric entered Italy, and for about a year and a half ravaged the northern part of the peninsula almost without opposition. Meanwhile, the walls of Rome were hurriedly repaired to meet his attack. On Easter Sunday, 402, Stilicho suddenly surprised the Goths while they were at worship. Although unprepared for battle, the barbarians made a desperate resistance, but were at last beaten. Alaric, however, was able to retreat in good order. Stilicho now began to play false with his emperor, Honorius, who was jealous of him. When it was discovered that Stilicho had given Alaric a handsome bribe to leave Italy, Honorius ordered him to be executed.

In 408 Alaric returned, and finding no such general as Stilicho to oppose him, marched to Rome and began to besiege the city. Within the walls food grew scarcer and scarcer, and at length the famine-stricken citizens bought him off with a rich ransom of gold, silver, silk, scarlet cloth, and pepper, then a rare and highly esteemed condiment. The Eternal City, which until that time had not seen an enemy before its walls since the days of Hannibal, was soon to receive two more visits from the conquering Goth. In 409 A.D. he appeared again, but once more the Senate made terms with him. Next year he came a third time, and the city fell without a blow. The gates were thrown open, and at midnight the sound of a Gothic trumpet awoke the inhabitants to find the barbarians in their midst. For six days the Goths held high revel; then they began the work of plunder. They spared the Christian churches, but when they moved south along the Appian Way they were accompanied by wagons heaped high with priceless booty.

Alaric died soon afterwards, and his body was buried along with much treasure in the bed of a stream, which was turned from its course until the earth was heaped above him. His successor married a sister of Honorius, who had amused himself with his pet chickens in a distant retreat while Rome was in the hands of the Goths. The new Gothic king took service with Rome, and under his guidance the barbarians turned westward into Spain. In Southern Gaul they founded a powerful Gothic kingdom, with Toulouse as its capital.

Another conqueror of Italy must now engage our attention. Alaric, though a Goth, was a Christian, and had been touched by civilizing influences. Not so the Hun whose career I shall now describe. The Huns, who afterwards gave their name to Hungary, were a people of Tartar stock, who in the third century B.C. inhabited most of North Asia. It is said that the Great Wall of China was erected to check their inroads. They were famous archers and horsemen, and made long marches with great swiftness. Very hardy and ferocious, they were the terror of their civilized neighbours. We do not know when they first made their appearance in Europe; but in the time of Trajan they held the country between the Danube and the Volga, and, as you already know, they swallowed up the East Goths in the year 375 A.D.

Writers of the time tell us that the Huns were short and thick-set, with flat noses, deep-sunk eyes, and a yellow complexion. One historian compares them in ugliness with the grinning heads clumsily carved on the posts of bridges. They built neither cities nor houses, and never stood beneath a roof without dread. Their clothes consisted of skins, which were never changed until they rotted off. A true nomadic people, they carried with them in their wanderings their families and their possessions in huge wagons. They fought not only with bows and arrows, but with sabres, javelins tipped with bone, slings, and lassos. They richly adorned their swords and the trappings of their horses; in their tents were found plates, goblets, and vases of gold.

About the year 433 Attila, famous in history and legend, became King of the Huns. He hated civilization and all its ways; he was cunning, faithless, arrogant, and mercilessly cruel, though not incapable of deeds of generosity. "This swarthy little Kalmuck" made millions tremble at his name. He was called "the scourge of God," and boasted that where his horse set foot grass never grew again.

In 451, with half a million of his hideous followers, he left his wooden palace in Hungary, vowing that he would not stop till he reached the sea. At the head of his savage riders he pushed westward, crossed the Rhine and advanced into the heart of Gaul, leaving the country behind him red with slaughter. In the early days of July, Aëtius, the Roman general in Gaul, and Theodoric, King of the Goths, met him in battle near Châlons on the Marne. A great and terrible fight followed: over 160,000 were slain, and neither side could claim a victory. Nevertheless the Huns retreated, and Gaul knew them no more.

Now let me interrupt my story for a moment to tell you that in 1900, when the Kaiser William of Germany sent troops to China, he bade them farewell in the following words: "When you meet the foe, you will defeat him. No quarter will be given; no prisoners taken. Let all who fall into your hands be at your mercy. Gain a reputation like the Huns under Attila." It is said that the German soldiers obeyed their War Lord's instructions with terrible thoroughness, and that they "hardly left a dog alive" on the blood-sodden road between Tientsin and Peking. I need not remind you of the many cruelties of the modern Huns during the Great War, but before I leave the subject let me point out a remarkable historical parallel. It was on the Marne that the forward sweep of Attila

POPE LEO CHECKS THE ADVANCE OF ATTILA.

(*From the mural painting by Raphael in the Vatican. Photo by Mansell.*)

and his Huns was checked in 451; it was on the Marne that the Kaiser's legions, advancing from Belgium, were defeated in 1914 and forced to retreat to the Aisne, where they dug themselves in.

Attila was foiled, but he had by no means finished his career. He returned to Hungary, and there, through the following autumn and winter, nursed his bitter wrath. In the spring of 452 he again set his host in motion, and crossing the Julian Alps descended upon Italy. The city of Aquileia, at the head of the Adriatic, so stubbornly resisted him that he was on the point of abandoning the siege. He was, however, encouraged to persist by a flight of storks, which he took to be a good omen. The city was carried by storm, and the Huns worked havoc upon men, women, and children. When they had glutted their rage and fury they gave the city to the flames.

After the fall of Aquileia the other cities dared not resist, and one by one they were sacked and their inhabitants carried off into slavery. Some of the fugitives took refuge on the islands and amidst the fens of the neighbouring Adriatic coast, and out of the poor fishing villages which they founded there grew up in time the lordly city of Venice. The invader completely wasted the valley of the Po, and was on the point of crossing the Apennines in order to fall upon Rome, when an embassy from the great city met him praying for peace. At the head of this embassy was Leo, Bishop of Rome, the first of the great popes. Awed by the majestic mien of the bishop, and perhaps remembering the sudden death that overtook Alaric immediately after his capture of Rome, the barbarian consented to make peace. He withdrew to Hungary, leaving Italy up to the Apennines a desert.

For several centuries afterwards the Huns continued to figure in European history, and we read of their ravages in Italy and Germany as late as the ninth and tenth centuries.

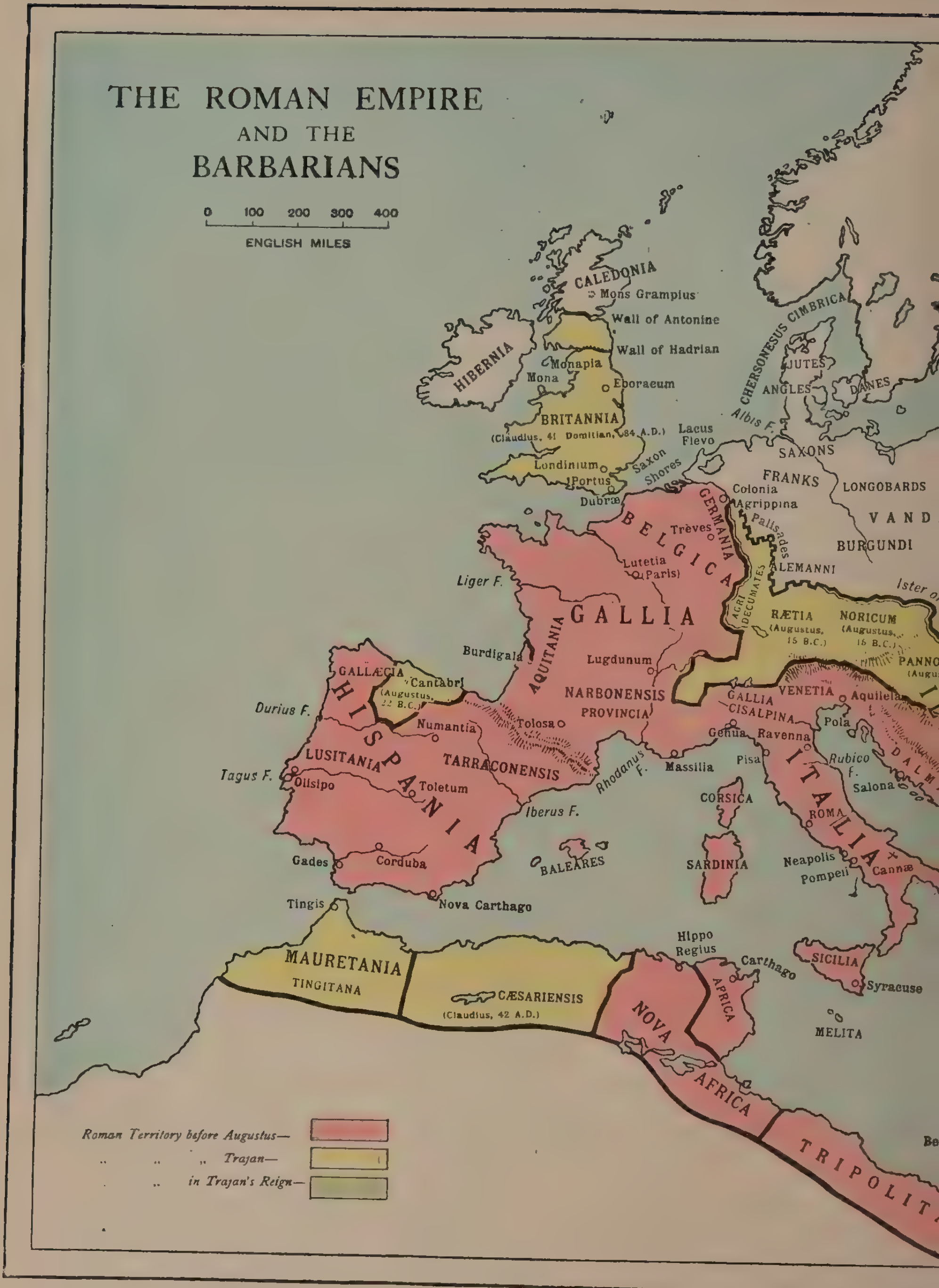
I must now tell you of a barbarian leader who, unlike Attila, did not spare Rome when it was at his mercy. I have already mentioned the Vandals as a Germanic tribe closely akin to the Goths. About the year 240 some of them joined the Goths in occupying first the country north of the Black Sea and then the Roman province of Dacia. In 405 they invaded Italy; but while besieging Florence were surrounded by Stilicho, who, you will remember, was himself a Vandal, and many of them were forced to surrender. The rest of the horde, joined by other tribes, overran Gaul with horrible cruelty. In 409 they passed into Spain and founded the province of Vandalusia, now known as Andalusia. They also founded an empire at Carthage.

Genseric, their king, wishing to revive the former sea power of Carthage, built a fleet with which he swept the Mediterranean. In 455 his fleet sailed up the Tiber, and cast anchor beneath the walls of Rome. Pope Leo came out to intercede with him, but in vain. He who had succeeded with Attila failed with Genseric. All that Genseric would promise was that the captives should not be tortured and that the buildings should not be burned. For fourteen days and nights Rome was given up to the barbarians. They plundered it without mercy; and when they departed their ships were laden with gold and silver vessels, statues and works of art, the gilded roofs of the Temple of Jupiter, the golden table and candlestick from the temple at Jerusalem, and the plate and ornaments of rich citizens. Ever since that day the term *Vandal* has meant a wanton destroyer.

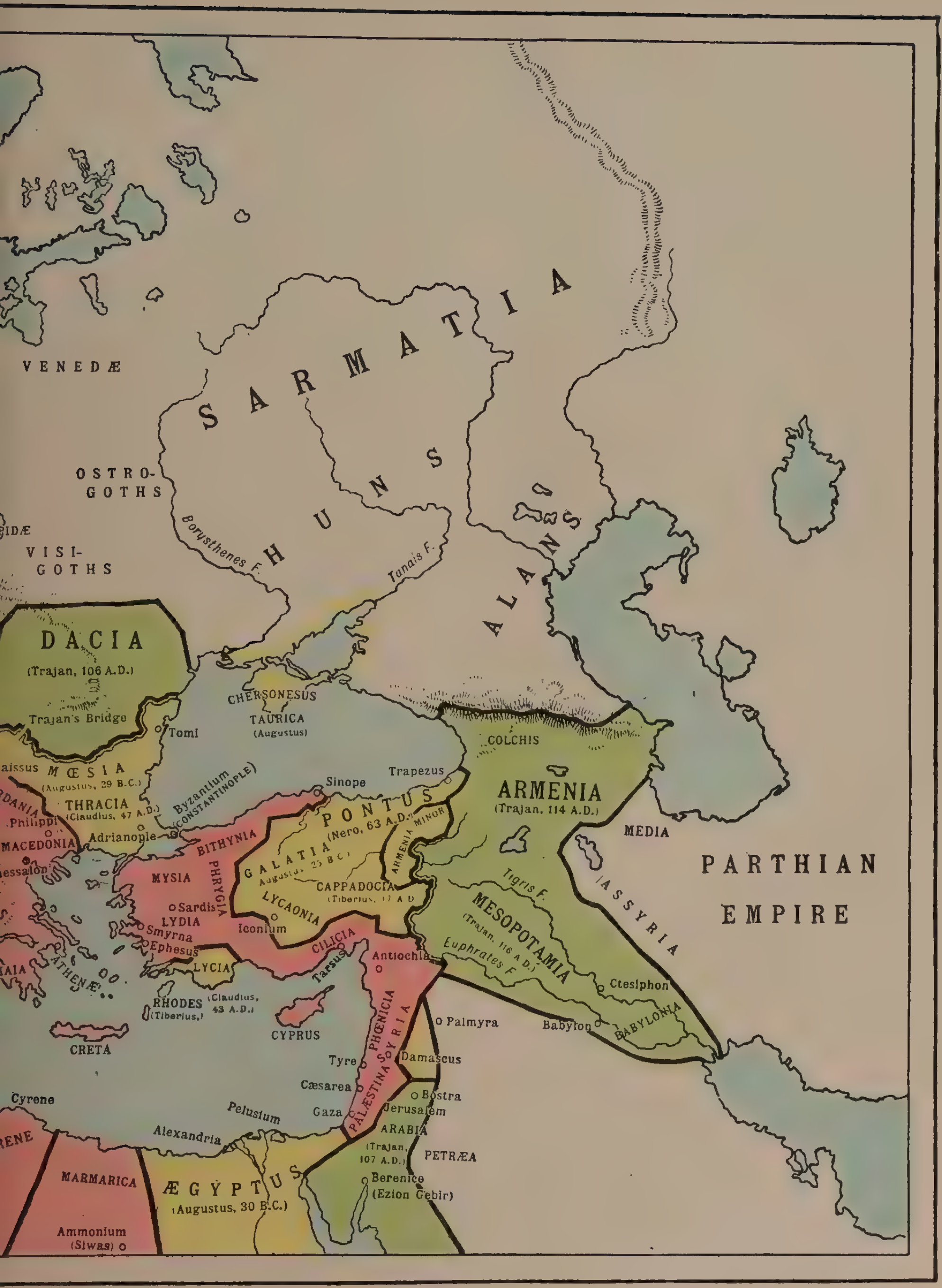
For years afterwards the Vandals continued to harry the Mediterranean shores. They conquered Sardinia, Corsica, and Sicily. When Genseric died (477) they were Christians. Fifty-six years later Belisarius, a general of the Eastern Empire, completely defeated them in Africa, and as a nation they soon ceased to exist.

In the year preceding the death of Genseric the Roman Empire was in its last throes. Barbarian troops in the pay of Rome now set up one puppet emperor after another. Half a dozen of these phantom emperors put on and off the purple robe at the command of the army, and the last of them, fearing death, resigned the throne. The Roman Senate voted that one emperor was enough, and sent the tiara and purple robe to Constantinople. Thus the Western Empire passed away.

*Read:* Tom Bevan's *Hero in Wolfskin;* also "The Last Fight in the Coliseum," from Miss Yonge's *A Book of Golden Deeds* (Nelson).



THE ROMAN EMPIRE
AND THE
BARBARIANS


VENEDÆ
SARMATIA
HUNS
ALANS
OSTRO-GOTHS
IDÆ
VISI-GOTHS
Borysthenes F.
Tanais F.
DACIA
(Trajan, 106 A.D.)
Trajan's Bridge
CHERSONESUS
TAURICA
(Augustus)
Tomi
aissus
MŒSIA
(Augustus, 29 B.C.)
DANIA
THRACIA
(Claudius, 47 A.D.)
Philippi
MACEDONIA
essalon
Adrianople
Byzantium
(CONSTANTINOPLE)
BITHYNIA
Sinope
Trapezus
PONTUS
(Nero, 63 A.D.)
ARMENIA MINOR
COLCHIS
ARMENIA
(Trajan, 114 A.D.)
MEDIA
PARTHIAN
EMPIRE
ASSYRIA
GALATIA
(Augustus, 25 B.C.)
CAPPADOCIA
(Tiberius, 17 A.D.)
LYCAONIA
Iconium
MYSIA
PHRYGIA
Sardis
LYDIA
Smyrna
Ephesus
LYCIA
(Claudius, 43 A.D.)
RHODES
(Tiberius.)
AIA
ATHENÆ
CILICIA
Tarsus
Antiochia
Tigris F.
MESOPOTAMIA
(Trajan, 116 A.D.)
Euphrates F.
Ctesiphon
Babylon
BABYLONIA
CYPRUS
CRETA
PHŒNICIA
SYRIA
Palmyra
Tyre
Damascus
Cæsarea
Bostra
Jerusalem
Gaza
PALÆSTINA
ARABIA
(Trajan, 107 A.D.)
PETRÆA
Berenice
(Ezion Gebir)
Cyrene
Pelusium
Alexandria
ENE
MARMARICA
ÆGYPTUS
(Augustus, 30 B.C.)
Ammonium
(Siwas)

## 15. THE CITY OF CONSTANTINE.

The sceptre of power in Europe had now passed to the third great city of the Western world—to Constantinople, the city of Constantine. Before I tell you how it became the capital of the Eastern Empire, let me give you a brief account of its founder. You will be specially interested in him, because his early years were spent in Britain.

While the barbarians were swarming across the frontiers of the Roman Empire, two comrades in arms, Diocletian and Maximian, held sway. Each emperor took the title of Augustus, and each appointed a general, called a Cæsar, to succeed him. The choice of Diocletian fell upon Constantius, and that of Maximian on Galerius. Constantius undertook the government of the provinces beyond the Alps, and his first duty was to restore order in Britain, where a local general, a rebel Cæsar named Carausius, had made himself independent. Constantius overcame Carausius and the rebel Cæsar who followed him. He then returned to Gaul, where he routed an invading German tribe, and after Diocletian and Maximian resigned, ruled at Rome with Galerius. In the next year (306) he again visited Britain, and died at York.

His son Constantine, who was born at Nish in the year 288, was with him in Britain when he died, and the troops at once proclaimed the young man emperor. At this time there were actually six emperors in the Roman world, each claiming to be Augustus. Civil war raged, but by the year 324 Constantine had overthrown his five rivals, and had made himself sole emperor. During this period of strife he became converted to Christianity. His mother, Helena, belonged to that faith, and it is said that he adopted his mother's creed because, when he was marching against one of his rivals, he saw in the sky at midday a flaming cross, and beneath it these words: "By this sign, conquer." His reign was marked by three important changes. Christianity, which had been terribly persecuted even by such good rulers as Trajan and Diocletian, became the State religion; the capital was removed from Rome to Byzantium (330 A.D.); and the monarchy was turned into a despotism.

Constantine was a man of great practical ability, and he perceived clearly the advantages of Byzantium as the site of his new capital. What were these advantages? You have only to look at the map to see them for yourselves. The city, with its excellent harbour, known as the Golden Horn, stands on the narrow strait known as the Bosporus, or Ox Ford. A ferry now carries passengers across the waters of the Bosporus to Asia. From the city southward there is a sea-road to the Mediterranean, and to all those important countries of the Roman world which surrounded it in the time of Constantine. Northward the Bosporus gives access to the Black Sea, into which flows the Danube. As you know, the Danube was the northern frontier of the empire, and was that part of its boundaries which was most open to attack. Seated at Byzantium, Constantine would be able to take his northern enemies in flank, and reach every part of his dominions by the easiest of all roads—the sea.

Upon the site of Byzantium Constantine therefore built his new city, which resembled Rome in that it spread over seven low hills. Noble buildings were erected and adorned by Greek architects and artists, and most of the cities of Greece and Asia, as well as Rome itself, were despoiled of their most valuable adornments to grace the new capital, which became an exact copy of old Rome. Senators were brought from Rome to dwell in it, and rich men in the provinces were compelled to keep up houses at Constantinople. Every day eighty thousand loaves of bread were distributed to the inhabitants. All the corn of Egypt was sent to the new city.

The Hippodrome, or track for horse races, took the place of the Colosseum. Though there were no gladiatorial shows, the chariot races so excited the people that their political and religious factions adopted the colours of favourite charioteers. Chief among these were the Blues and the Greens, between whom savage feuds existed. In the great riot of 532, both Blues and Greens combined against the Emperor

Justinian. A large part of Constantinople was burned, and thirty thousand people are said to have fallen before the revolt was suppressed.

Great walls were built around the city on its land side by Constantine, and by a later emperor, Theodosius, and the massive remains still stand. Thanks to those fortifications, the new Rome, more fortunate than the old, resisted all attacks, till in 1203 it was captured by the Crusaders.

A change came over the Roman army after the capital was moved to the Bosporus. Having to deal with bands of active barbarians, it was composed more and more of horse soldiers, wearing coats of mail and armed with the bow. Gradually most of the new troops came to be recruited from the Goths and other tribes, and the later emperors of Constantinople had a bodyguard called the Varangians, who were Northmen from the distant Baltic. The Romans of Constantinople had another great resource in war, called "Greek fire." It was a compound of fiercely-burning substances, blown through brazen tubes against an enemy's ships or walls. To this device, which anticipated the "flame throwers" of the Great War, was due the repulse of several attacks made upon Constantinople by Saracens, Russians, and other foes.

Constantine made himself an absolute monarch. In the old days of the empire the generals who were sent to the provinces were both military and civil governors, and this meant that a powerful and ambitious man was able to set himself up as a Cæsar. Constantine changed the system so as to weaken the governors and make himself supreme over all. The military governors had no longer anything to do with the business of civil government. Officers were appointed for this purpose, and thus the power formerly in one man's hands was divided amongst many officials. By dividing the authority and himself appointing all the officials, Constantine made himself absolute master of his empire.

You must remember that Constantine, though he ruled from Constantinople, was emperor of the undivided Roman Empire; it was not split in twain until the year 395. The period between 395 and 476 has been sufficiently described in

THE CITY OF CONSTANTINE—CONSTANTINOPLE AT THE PRESENT TIME.

the former chapter. As you know, it was marked by the break-up of Roman power throughout Western Europe, and by the establishment of barbarian kingdoms. The Roman government of Britain came to an end in 410, the year in which the legions were hurriedly recalled for the defence of Italy against Alaric the Goth. Thereafter the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes began their conquest and settlement of South Britain. By the time the Senate of Rome sent the useless sceptre and purple robe to Constantinople these tribes had gained a foothold in England.

The emperors of the East had their seat of authority at Constantinople for nearly a thousand years after the downfall of the Western Empire. They continued the name and the traditions of Rome, and always regarded themselves as Roman emperors. The language used, however, came to be Greek, and most of the numerous officials were Greeks. At the same time the court of Constantinople had in many ways an Eastern aspect. The emperors assumed the embroidered robes and jewellery and pomp of Eastern monarchs, their palaces were thronged with courtiers, and all who sought audience of the emperor had to humble themselves in the Eastern way.

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The Eastern Empire reached its highest point of fame and power during the reign of Justinian, who ruled from 527 to 565. He was the adopted nephew of a Dacian peasant, who had become an officer in the Imperial Guards, and had climbed to the throne by military strength. He had carefully educated his nephew for the duties of emperor, and before dying named him as his successor. Justinian proved himself to be the most remarkable sovereign in the history of the Eastern Empire. He was neither capable, clever, faithful, nor of high character; but he had the power of making men much abler than himself serve him with the utmost zeal and success. His greatest service to mankind was to set his lawyers to work to collect into a code the laws of Rome. What are called the *Institutes of Justinian* are studied by every law student even to-day.

The two most famous generals of Justinian's time were Belisarius and Narses. Belisarius began his career by a war with the King of Persia, who then ruled from the Red Sea to the Indus. The Persian king was too strong to be subdued, and Justinian could only obtain peace by paying tribute to him. In the West, however, Belisarius won great success. He overthrew the Vandal power in Africa (see page 104), and restored Roman authority in Carthage.

The ambition of Justinian was fired by this conquest, and he now sent Belisarius against Sicily, of which the Gothic kings of Italy had become overlords. The island was conquered, and the victorious general crossed over to the mainland. He took Naples, making his way under the walls by means of an old aqueduct, and with a small force occupied Rome. Here for a whole year he defied a great Gothic host which besieged him, and when the siege was raised he advanced against the Gothic capital of Ravenna and captured their king. Justinian, who was jealous of his general's success, recalled him; and as a consequence of his folly the Goths, under their new king Totila, recovered so much ground that he was forced to send Belisarius back again to stem the torrent of their advance.

Rome was still holding out, but in 546 it fell, and the Goths ruthlessly sacked it. Afterwards Belisarius re-entered the city, and thrice beat back the assaults which Totila made upon it. Justinian again recalled his general, and the command was given to Narses, who overthrew the Goths and restored Italy to the empire. The Goths were also driven out of Spain; so you see that once more the Roman Empire became reunited under one emperor. This restored empire was not, however, to last long. It passed away with the death of Justinian, in 565.

A warlike German people, known as the Lombards, had been invited by Justinian to settle in the country between the Inn, the Danube, and the Save. From this territory they crossed the Alps into the fertile plain of North Italy, which still bears their name. Under their king, Alboin, they conquered all the north and much of the south of Italy, but not the central part.

Thus a Lombard kingdom was set up which continued for two centuries.

In the reign of Heraclius (610–641) the Eastern Empire was beset by foes, who for a time threatened to destroy it altogether. The Turks from Asia and the Huns from the Danube fiercely attacked the empire, and the Persians stripped it first of Syria, then of Egypt, and finally of Asia Minor. For ten years the Persians encamped in sight of Constantinople. At length Heraclius awoke from his sluggishness, and having bribed the Huns to cease their attacks, turned on the Persians and rolled them back. He recovered Syria for a time; but a new foe, the Saracens, now appeared, and against them he could do nothing. We shall read of these Saracens as a great conquering power in a later lesson.

The Eastern or, as it is sometimes called, the Byzantine Empire was a Christian empire, but it had none of that life and power and spirit which we should expect from the religion which it professed. The Christian teachers fiercely disputed about questions of doctrine and forms of worship; and where there should have been the Christian graces of charity and brotherly kindness, there was little but hatred and bitter strife, which sometimes resulted in outrage, plunder, and murder.

The history of the Byzantine Empire greatly resembles that of the Western Empire in its last days. We read of constant barbarian attacks which were weakly resisted; of an unruly people at the heart of the empire; of ambitious generals; of emperors deposed or murdered by their own wives and sons; of men in high places dead to honour and steeped in iniquity. We also read of short periods during which the empire's downward course was stayed and its power and prosperity were revived. But all the time it was sinking, and at last it fell into utter ruin.

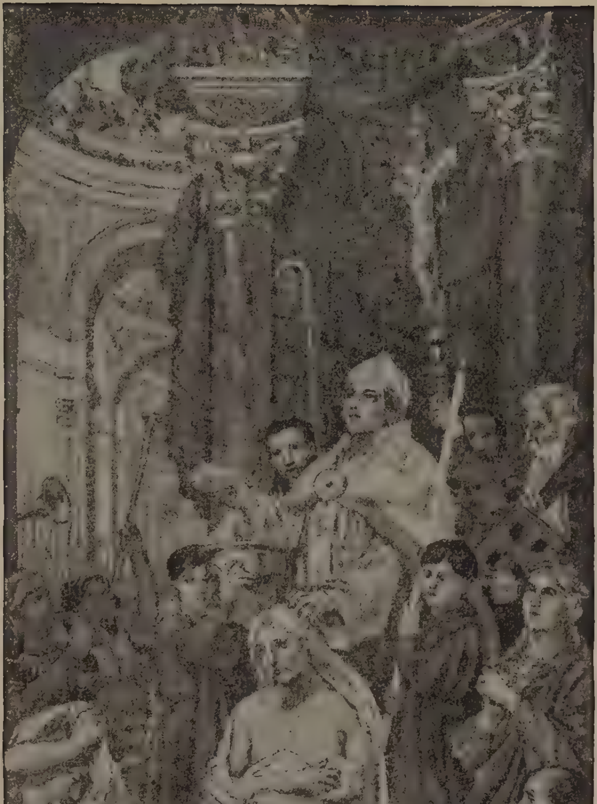
Neighbouring peoples thought that the Greek emperors of Constantinople were tricky and treacherous; the Greeks, on the other hand, considered that they were justified in using craft and guile to get the better of the barbarians. But despite all its faults, we must give to the decaying empire credit for this—that for hundreds of years it "kept the bridge" for Europe against the Eastern invaders, until the new nations of the West were civilized and organized, and able to defend themselves.

*Read:* Chapter II. of *Count Robert of Paris,* by Sir Walter Scott.

## 16. THE BEGINNINGS OF FRANCE AND SPAIN.

We have now left ancient history behind us, and have begun the story of the Middle Ages, which extend from the close of the fifth century to the end of the fifteenth century. The first half of this period is sometimes called, though not with full justice, the Dark Ages, because the torch of ancient learning and culture seemed to be well-nigh extinguished during these years. It is better, however, to think of these Dark Ages as the time in which a new state of society and a new civilization were being set up on the ruins of the old.

So far, the Mediterranean races had held the sceptre of power in Europe; they were now to give place to the Germanic tribes of the north. We shall see these strong but backward peoples setting up states in their own way, but taking into their national life the religion, the system of government and law, which had been bequeathed to them by Græco-Roman civilization. But while the new condition of things was in a large degree a continuation of the old, we shall find, as time went by, an entirely new spirit arising—the spirit of freedom. Men were no longer content that their minds, souls, and bodies should be governed by those who claimed authority over them. The whole story of Europe thereafter is the record of the long and painful strivings by which peoples gradually asserted their right to rule themselves. All down the ages we shall see nations throwing off the yoke of authority, whether in Church or State, and claiming freedom as the greatest gift which life can bestow.



THE BAPTISM OF CLOVIS.

(*From a study by Gilbert James, after the painting by Joseph Blanc, in the Pantheon, Paris.*)

I must first tell you how Gaul became France. You have not forgotten that Cæsar subdued the fierce Celts and made them contented with Roman rule. For four and a half centuries they remained under Roman sway, and no part of the empire reflected so faithfully the Roman civilization. When Rome fell into decay and could no longer defend her subject peoples, the troubles of Gaul began.

Turn back to the map of the Roman Empire as it was in the days of Trajan, and note the territory then occupied by that league of German tribes known as the Franks or "Free" peoples. You see that they held the country between the Lower Rhine and the Lower Elbe. Early in the history of the empire we find them the valiant and faithful allies of the Roman republic. In the year 410, when the Roman legions were withdrawn from Gaul to oppose Alaric in Italy, bands of Franks pushed into Gaul, captured Trèves, its capital, and settled in the northern part of the country. The strongest of these bands was known as the Salian Franks, and their princes, who were distinguished by long hair which was never cut, were known as Meerwings or Merovingians.

Seventy years later, Childeric, king of the Salian Franks, died, and the tribe chose his son Clovis, a boy of fifteen, to be their king. As he grew up he proved himself to be one of the most ambitious, energetic, and faithless of all the German leaders who founded new states. He carried his arms through the whole of North Gaul, and gradually subdued it. From 496 onward Gaul began to be known as France.

Clovis, though a pagan, had married a Christian princess named Clotilde, who strove to convert him. It was not, however, until the year 496 that he embraced her faith. In that year the Goths invaded his country, and a fierce battle was fought, during which the issue of the day was in doubt. It is said that when Clovis saw his troops wavering he made a vow that if victory was vouchsafed to him he would become a Christian. The battle was won; the Goths were driven out, and Clovis was baptized with great state in the cathedral at Reims, now shot to ruins by German guns.

Clovis died in Paris in 511, and the kingdom which he had founded was divided, according to Frank custom, amongst his four sons, who were lads ranging in age from twelve to eighteen. Metz, Paris, Soissons, and Orleans were their centres of rule. These princes extended the conquests of their father, and Justinian recognized their title to rule over all Gaul. During the next hundred years the kingdom was united and divided more than once. Cruel and devastating wars were waged by the rivals. In time the princes of the royal house became so idle and careless and imbecile that they were known as the *fainéant* or "do-nothing" kings. The real king was the mayor of the palace, who was elected to this office by the Frank nobles.

In 687 one of these mayors, a man named Pepin, tumbled the "do-nothings" off their throne, and ruled vigorously in their stead. He put down rival claimants, and was the real founder of the line of French kings afterwards known as the Carlovingians. His still more vigorous son, Charles Martel, or Charles the Hammer, fought three fierce battles to secure his throne, and afterwards subdued two of the tribes on his borders. Six times he harried the obstinate Saxons, but without forcing them to submit. His great exploit in war was his repulse of the Arabs and Moors who came sweeping into his country from Spain.

* * * * * * *

In the year 571, while Saxons, Angles, and Jutes were establishing themselves in Britain, an Arab named Mohammed was born in the Arabian city of Mecca. He was destined to become the founder of Mohammedanism, one of the world's great religions, and to inspire his fellow-countrymen with such religious fervour that they believed themselves invincible, and embarked upon a great career of conquest with the cry, "Believe or die." The story of this man, who taught that "there is no god but God, and Mohammed is His prophet," must be sought elsewhere. Here it will be sufficient to say that by the year 639 the Arab leaders and rulers who succeeded him had conquered Syria and Egypt, and were marching westward through North Africa, northward towards Asia Minor, and eastward towards Persia.

In the year 710 these Saracens, as they are called, crossed the Strait of Gibraltar into Spain, under their leader Tarik, who gave his name to Tarifa, the most southerly town in Spain; and also to Gibraltar, which in Arabic means "the rock of Tarik." Tarik had only an army of twelve thousand men with which to accomplish the conquest of Spain. Yet with this small force he defeated a far greater array of Christians, under King Roderick, "the last of the Goths." Before the end of the second year after their landing at Gibraltar, the Saracens had conquered the whole of the southern, central, and eastern part of the peninsula. They set up a kingdom which is known as the Moorish kingdom, because they came from Mauritania, the modern Morocco. This Moorish kingdom in Spain was maintained in whole or in part for nearly eight hundred years.

In the mountainous country of the north bands of Christian Goths still held out. The rugged hills, cleft by narrow gorges and defiles, enabled the refugees to defy the Moors, and to begin a struggle which ended in the recovery of the entire peninsula. I have already told you that in the year 732 the Moors invaded France, which was then ruled by Charles Martel. They were greedy for the booty of Christian cities and shrines, and under Abd-ar-Rahman they crossed the Pyrenees, sacked Bordeaux, and having wasted the province of Aquitaine, advanced to the city of Tours on the Loire, near to which the Moslem Moors and the Christian Franks met in a terrible conflict, rightly regarded as one of the decisive battles of the world. Had the Moors won the day the Crescent might have triumphed, and the Cross might have been trampled under foot in Europe. The battle, however, ended in the complete overthrow of the Moors.

Charles the Great, whose career I shall deal with in the next lesson, invaded Spain forty-six years later, at a time when the Moors were quarrelling amongst themselves. He crossed the Pyrenees with a great army, and without much opposition reached the city of Pampeluna, which he besieged. Then his troubles began. The Basques, who inhabited the Pyrenees region, made such a strong resistance that Charles was forced to retreat. On his way back to France he had to traverse a narrow gorge of the Pyrenees known as Roncesvalles.

The van of the army, led by the king, passed through safely; the rearguard, hampered by booty, followed slowly, under the command of Roland, one of the bravest of the knights in Charles's train. With him was his friend Oliver, a man no less distinguished for courage. As the men and wagons entered a gap overhung by steep precipices the hidden foe hurled down rocks and the trunks of uprooted trees upon them. Many of the troops were crushed to death, and the gap was blocked. Then the Basques lurking amidst the rocks and bushes fell upon the surviving warriors. Though greatly outnumbered, the Franks fought with splendid courage, and foremost in the fray were Roland and Oliver.

In the following centuries the story of this rearguard action was magnified into a great disaster inflicted on the Christians by the Moors. This legend became the theme of a thousand heroic songs and stories, as famous in their way as those of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. The "Song of Roland," the great poem which inspired the Franks for many a long day, is one of the treasures of literature. When William of Normandy invaded England in 1066 he had it sung at the head of his troops. Every one has heard of the magic "Horn of Roland," which the dying hero sounded in vain in order to summon help from his king. Sir Walter Scott makes Marmion cry,—

"Oh for one blast of that dread horn
On Fontarabian * echoes borne
That to King Charles did come,
When Roland brave and Olivier
And every paladin and peer
In Roncesvalles died!"

The phrase "A Roland for an Oliver," meaning "tit for tat," has passed into a proverb.

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It will be convenient in this lesson to say something of the influence of the Moors on Spain and on the Spanish people.

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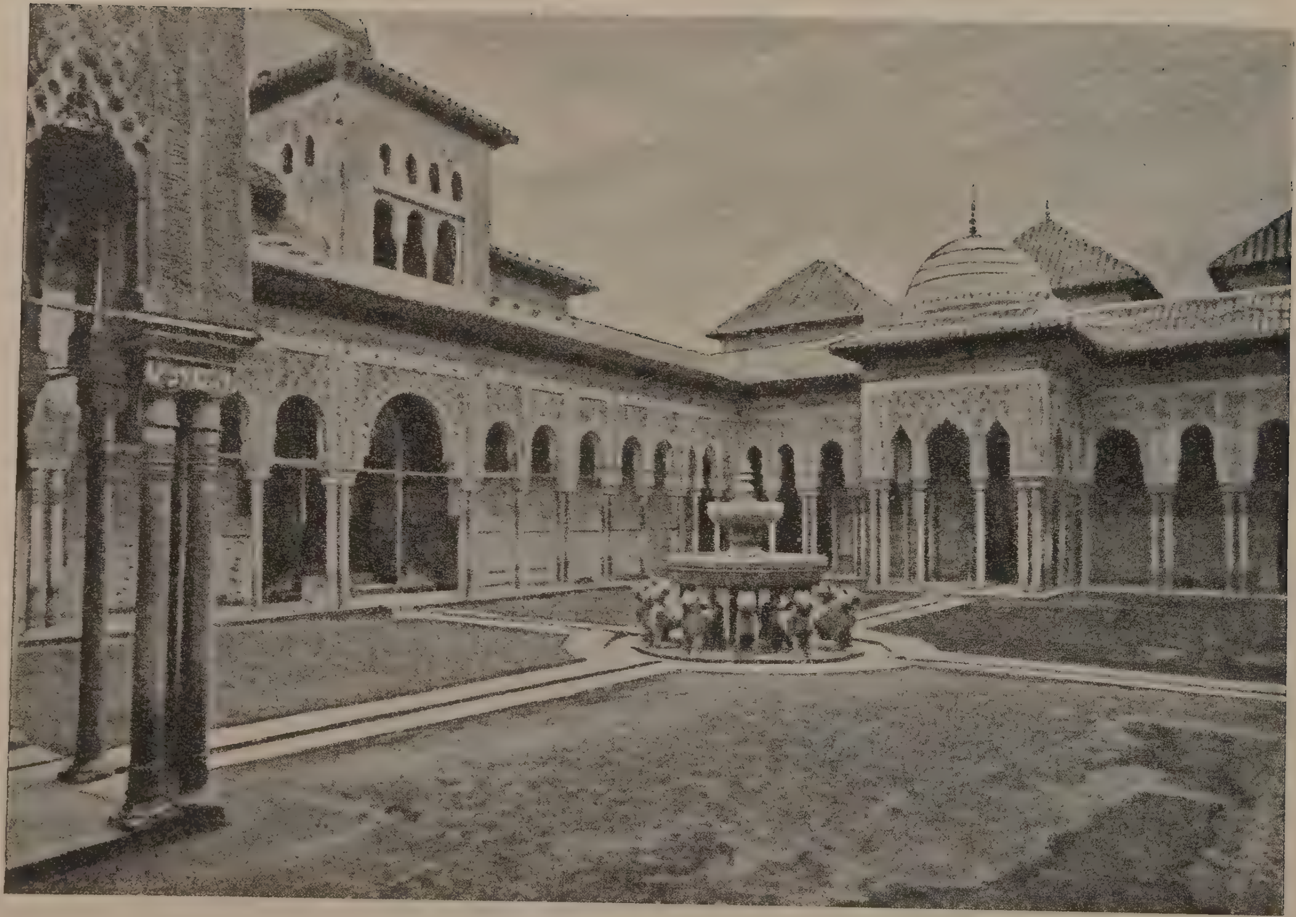
* Fontarabia was a little town nearly *forty* miles from Roncesvalles.



COURT OF THE LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA.

In the course of their conquest they swept away the Gothic art of Spain; but they afterwards erected many monuments of an Eastern character, chiefly mosques, royal castles, baths, towers, and city gates. Some of these still remain. The finest of all their erections is the Alhambra, or Red Castle, at Granada, a great gloomy building containing wonderful marble pillars adorned with elaborate scroll-work and bright with gorgeous colouring. The Moors greatly encouraged agriculture and manufactures in the south; planted vineyards, constructed irrigation works; carefully bred horses, cattle, and sheep; and manufactured silk, wool, leather-work, and sword cutlery. Specially famous were the sword blades of Toledo and the leather-work of Cordova. From the name of the latter city we get our English word "cordwainer."

The Moors brought skill, elegance, and wealth to Spain. They left the people in full enjoyment of their religion, customs, and local government, and were certainly gentler masters than the Goths had been. At first they did not persecute the conquered inhabitants, and marriage between the races was common. The children of these mixed marriages were known as Moriscos. To this is due the swarthy complexion of many Spaniards. Some of the Moslem chiefs, or califs, rendered priceless service to civilization by causing translations to be made of the best works of Greek writers, and by giving the wisdom and knowledge of the ancients to the Spaniards of their time.

As the wars between the two races went on, both sides became embittered. After the Spaniards conquered Granada, the last Moorish kingdom (1492), they began to persecute both the Moors and the Moriscos. At last, in 1609, a million of the descendants of the Moors, the best farmers and artisans in the land, were driven out of Spain. As a consequence the cultivation of rice, cotton, and sugar, and the manufacture of silk and paper, almost ceased. All the flourishing industries were destroyed at a blow. "The Moor had done his work; the Moor could go."

The Christian Spaniards had come to regard the labour of field, factory, and mine as altogether beneath their dignity;

war alone was their occupation. In the sixteenth century the Spaniards were the mightiest nation in the world; but in the seventeenth century, when they drove out their best workmen and tillers of the soil, the country became hopelessly bankrupt, and sank into a death-like decay.

*Read:* "Guzman el Bueno," from Miss Yonge's *A Book of Golden Deeds* (Nelson).

## 7. CHARLES THE GREAT AND THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

CHARLES, the grandson of Charles Martel, became sole king of the Franks in the year 768, and was destined to become the greatest and most powerful sovereign of the Middle Ages. He was a man of huge stature, with a dome-like head and large brilliant eyes. Heroic in character, ambitious in disposition, full of energy, a lover of action and a patron of art and learning, though he never learned to write, his prowess in war, his ease and grace of converse and his dignity of person greatly impressed the men of his time and gave rise to numberless legends. He specially loved hunting and swimming, and for the latter purpose built magnificent baths at his capital of Aachen, or, as the French call it, Aix-la-Chapelle. His reign extended over forty-six years, and during that time he was almost continually at war. Fortunate in his campaigns, he swept over Europe from the Ebro to the Oder, from Brittany * to Hungary, from Denmark to Central Italy. He thus extended his sway far beyond the limits of the Western Empire of Rome.

This Western empire had disappeared, but the idea still prevailed that such an empire ought to exist. All through the Middle Ages men dreamed of restoring the Rome of ancient renown, and once more making her the head of the world. Charles was to make this dream a reality; he was to build up an empire which included all the west of Europe, and to preserve peace and order within its wide bounds. He was to ally himself with the Bishop of Rome, and protect and promote the power of the Church. The empire which he was to establish was called the "Holy Roman Empire."

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* Brittany occupies the peninsular part of north-west France. Until Celts from Britain crossed the Channel and settled in the country in the fifth century it was known as Armorica. Afterwards it was called *Bretagne*. The native language is much like Welsh.

Charles is usually known by the French form of his name and title—Charlemagne—and this may lead you to think of him as a French king. But you must bear in mind that France as we know it now had not come into existence in the days of Charles the Great. He was king of the Franks, and under him *Francia* comprised all Northern Gaul and Central Germany. We must regard him mainly as a German king, whose great work was to lay the foundations of modern Germany. The Germans have always regarded him as the monarch who gave glory and glamour to their name, and they have always cherished the ambition to recover all and more than all of the territory which he ruled.

Charles first led his Franks against the Saxons on his northern border, and after more than thirty years of intermittent warfare thoroughly conquered them, and forced them to accept Christianity. In the second year of his reign Pope Adrian called upon him as a son of the Church to make war upon the last king of the Lombards, who was trying to extend his power at the expense of the Pope's dominions. Charles crossed the Alps at the head of a great army, reduced Pavia after a year's siege, made a complete overthrow of the kingdom, and was crowned King of Lombardy with the famous iron crown. In 778 he invaded Spain, and though he met with that defeat at Roncesvalles which I described in Lesson 16, he pushed his frontier to the Ebro. During the next twenty years he subdued the Bavarians, the Huns, and other border tribes, and by the year 800 had made himself master of the north-east of Spain, the whole of France, Northern and Central Germany, much of Austria, all Northern and Central Italy, and the island of Corsica.

Adrian died in 795, and his successor, Pope Leo III., was driven from Rome four years later. He fled to Charles for protection, and was replaced on his throne. On Christmas Day, 800, while Charles rose from his knees on the steps of the altar in St. Peter's, Rome, the Pope, without a word of warning, placed on his brow the crown of the Cæsars, and saluted him as "Emperor of the West." The Romans hailed their new emperor joyfully, for they knew that their city would once more be restored to the place of honour which it held before Constantinople became the seat of empire. Italy now passed under the rule of the German king.

Twelve years later the emperors of the East agreed to recognize Charles as Emperor of the West. His friends declared that he had won the crown of the Cæsars by his conquests, while the friends of the Pope declared that Leo had deposed the Emperor of Constantinople and had set up Charles in his stead. The people of Rome disagreed with both parties; they said that they had elected the emperor in accordance with their ancient right. The consequence was that for seven hundred years the German emperors believed that if they were to wear the imperial crown they must rule Italy. They continually wasted their strength in Italy, and never were able to unify all the states of their own land. That task was not accomplished until the year 1871.

During the remaining years of his life, which were comparatively quiet, Charles devoted himself to the work of making his wide dominions strong and prosperous. He divided his territory into counties, and placed over each of them a count, who acted as governor and was responsible to him. In order to keep these governors in check, and to assure himself that they were ruling faithfully and well, he sent out two royal messengers from time to time to inquire into the conduct of the officials and the clergy, and to report to him. In this way he kept himself in touch with the affairs of Church and State throughout his realm. Further, he constantly travelled to and fro, fighting, settling disputes, conducting trials, and in other ways helping to make the machinery of government work smoothly. Charles, as you know, was a very zealous son of the Church. He took the Bible as his authority, and the laws which he established

CORONATION OF CHARLEMAGNE.

were a curious mixture of rules derived from the old German law, Roman law, and the Bible.

All his free subjects were supposed to be available for the work of war; but he was so constantly engaged in fighting, and his campaigns were conducted at such a great distance, that many of his people tried to escape military service. Charles arranged that a man called up might send a substitute. He also maintained a fleet and carefully guarded his coasts.

He was a great builder, especially of churches, and he chiefly employed Italians as architects. He attracted to his court all the learned men of his time and set up a school in his palace. During the winters, when his campaigns were suspended, the scholars, whom he brought from far and near, gave lectures and held discussions. He also founded schools in the cathedrals and monasteries for the education both of clergy and of laymen. His great delight was music, and at Metz and Soissons he established schools in which the Italian mode of singing was taught.

Many stories are told of his great interest in the work of these schools. On one occasion, when he returned to Aachen after a long absence, he ordered all the scholars to come before him and show him the work which they had done while he was away. The sons of the high nobility had nothing to show, but the poorer scholars laid before him their exercises, poems, and compositions. Charles rebuked the idle nobles for wasting their time in sports, and told them plainly that if they did not mend their ways he would give them no gifts or offices. For the industrious poor he had nothing but praise, and he promised that if they continued as they had begun he would make them bishops and abbots. As a result of his labours there was a revival of learning. Men began to study the Latin writers of the best periods, and thus many works of classical times were preserved, and Latin became the language of education during the Middle Ages. Charles specially loved his own German tongue, and made a collection of German songs and legends.

He died in his northern capital of Aachen, and the same day was buried in the great church which he had built. The following inscription was carved on a gilded arch above his last resting-place: "In this tomb lies the body of Karl the Great, emperor, who gloriously extended the kingdom of the Franks and reigned prosperously for forty-seven years. He died at the age of seventy, in the year of our Lord 814, on the 28th day of January."

* * * * * * *

The vast empire which Charles had built up could only be held together by a man of commanding power. The second Frankish emperor, Louis the Gentle, was better fitted for the cloister than for the throne. Indeed, more than once he wished to lay down his crown and retire to a monastery. He was in turn the slave of his wife, his clergy, and his sons. During his lifetime he attempted to divide his empire between his sons, and after his death they quarrelled and fought for three years. At length, in 843, they met at Verdun—that "inviolable" city which the Germans vainly strove to capture at a terrible loss of life during the Great War—and made a treaty.

By this treaty Lothair, the eldest son, was to be emperor, and to retain the two capitals, Rome and Aachen. His territory (Lotharingia) was to consist of Italy and a strip of land extending from Italy to the North Sea. At one end of it was Provence, then part of Burgundy, and at the other end Holland. It was broken into two parts by the Alps, and two different languages were spoken in it. I need not tell you that a state of this character was bound to go to pieces before long. Lothair's name survives in Lorraine, one of the two provinces reft from France by the Germans in the war of 1870–1871. Louis, the second son, known in history as Louis the German, obtained all the land to the east of Lothair's strip; and the third son, Charles the Bald, took all the territory to the west. The realm of Louis was roughly modern Germany, and that of Charles modern France. The history of France and of Germany as separate nations begins with the treaty which was made by the sons of Charles the Great at Verdun in 843.

Now set in a time of great violence and confusion, during which the different kingdoms were split up and brought together again like the pieces of glass in a kaleidoscope. During the strife Lothair died, and by 875 his family became extinct. Charles and Louis were now left struggling for the imperial crown. Louis died in the following year, and Charles tried to seize his brother's territory. He was prevented from doing so by the Northmen, of whom I shall speak in the next lesson. They invaded his kingdom, and Charles, by means of bribes, secured them as allies and sent them to attack his nephews in Germany. He himself set out for Rome, but died on the way.

His son and two of his grandsons succeeded to his kingdom, which suffered greatly from the ravages of Northmen and Saracens. By the year 884 the line of Charles was only represented by a child of five years old, known as Charles the Simple. Rather than see a child on the throne and the kingdom given over to a long period of regency, the nobles offered the crown to Charles the Fat, third son of Louis the German. Thus the empire which Charles the Great had founded was once more united under a single ruler. The new emperor proved to be a poor, sluggish creature, who was afflicted with perpetual headache. By the year 887 all the kingdoms of his empire agreed to depose him and to set up kings of their own. The new kingdoms thus formed had a chance of growing into nations, for they were more nearly composed of men of the same race and language than they had ever been. From this time onward the eastern and the western Franks were never again united.

We now find Germany, the eastern part of the empire, divided into seven little kingdoms, and France, the western part, into two. This breaking up of the empire shows clearly that the power and authority which Charles had wielded had utterly broken down. Feudalism,* which transferred the power formerly exercised by sovereigns into the hands of nobles, had grown up, and had strongly rooted itself in Europe. Thenceforward there was violence everywhere; the more powerful nobles oppressed the weaker, and all combined to enslave the

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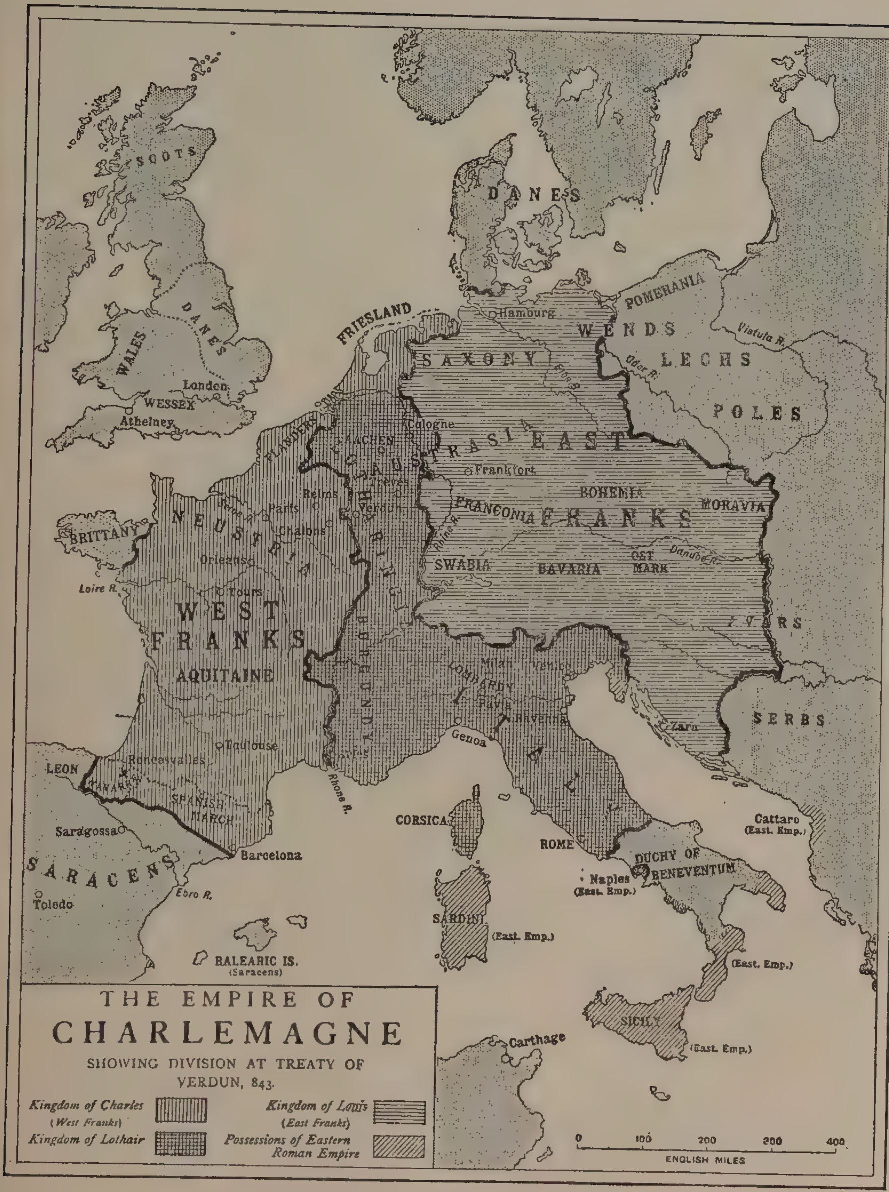
* See p. 135.



THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE

SHOWING DIVISION AT TREATY OF VERDUN, 843.

peasants. One hundred years after the death of the man who had made himself master of Western Europe, and had ruled it with power and wisdom, the empire was broken into fragments.

*Read:* "The Shepherd Girl of Nanterre" and "Leo the Slave," from Miss Yonge's *A Book of Golden Deeds.*

## 18. ROLF THE GANGER.

Before Charles the Great died he saw his western coasts and river valleys harried by a new foe from the north. Piratical tribes swarmed across the sea, sailed up the rivers, plundered homesteads, fired houses, and having slaughtered the inhabitants or carried them off as slaves, returned whence they came, laden with booty. These sea rovers are known as Northmen or Danes, according as they came from the coast of Norway or from the islands of the Baltic Sea. A general term for them is Vikings, or "Sons of the Creek," and they were so called because they were in the habit of mooring their ships in creeks and bays, ready to pounce upon the peaceful merchant vessels which passed their shores.

These Vikings were of the same race as the English, and resembled in all respects those of their kinsmen who had conquered England in the sixth century. Their language was similar, and their customs were much the same; but while the English had been converted to Christianity, and had become partly civilized, the Vikings still gloried in their descent from Woden, and revelled in bloodthirsty warfare. They hated those who had abandoned the old fierce faith of their fathers for the mild worship of Christ, and they fell upon them with especial fury. They shed with joy the blood of priests; they loved to rob and defile churches. They were a scourge not only to England, Scotland, and Ireland, but to the whole of Europe. France, Italy, Sicily, Russia, and Germany—all were their prey.

No race of the ancient or modern world has ever "followed

A DESCENT OF THE DANES.

(*From the water-colour drawing by W. Bell Scott, H.R.S.A., in the South Kensington Museum.*)

The Danes have suddenly appeared off the coast of Northumberland. The high cliff in the picture is the point of Tynemouth, now crowned by a lighthouse. Some of the ships have run ashore, and the Danes are even now making their way to land through the surf. The frightened English are building a fort on the hill, and men, women, and children are hurrying thither for safety. Notice the priest who is carrying the candles, books, and chalice of his church. The Danes were in the habit of sacking and burning the churches, and slaying the priests without mercy.

the sea " with such fearlessness and keen delight as the Vikings. The sea was their "swan road," their "Viking path," their "land of the keel," their "glittering home." Their ships were the "deer of the surf" and their "horses of the sea." We know exactly what their ships were like, for in the year 1880 a burial mound was opened at Gökstadt, in Southern Norway, and a Viking ship was unearthed.

This ship was sixty-six feet long on the keel, and seventy-eight feet over all. It was fifteen and a half feet in extreme width, three and a half feet deep, was clincher-built, and calked with hair. Its proportions were beautiful, and the whole ship was light, strong, and graceful. When it was dug up it was found to contain a chamber in which lay the bones of a Viking chief, together with the remains of dogs and peacocks. Around the ship's side were the skeletons of thirteen horses. The prow was turned seaward, as though ready for a voyage.

All Viking ships were built on this model, and they varied in length from fifty feet to a hundred and fifty feet or more, and had from twelve to thirty-five seats for the rowers. The large vessels were decked, and had cabins below and a raised platform aft. Usually they were painted white, blue, or red. Over the gunwale were hung the warriors' shields, both to save space and to serve as armour plate.

Both ends of the ship were built alike, so that it could be sailed with equal ease in either direction. Each ship had one mast, with a square sail of woollen stuff, either white, or coloured in stripes of blue, red, and green. The high prows of the ship were carved into the likeness of a dragon, a bird, or some other animal. In these somewhat small and not very seaworthy ships the Vikings made voyages which are simply astounding to us to-day. For example, they not only crossed the North Sea to the Orkneys, but actually discovered Iceland, Greenland, and North America.

Their barks were to be found on all the seas of Western Europe, not only because the Vikings loved the life of a rover, but because they were forced to seek new homes in foreign lands. The King of Norway, Harold Fairhair, had overcome the petty kings of Norway one after the other, and had made himself supreme king. Many of these petty kings took to their ships, and with their wives and families set off across the "swan road" to find new homes for themselves in distant and better favoured lands. They were joined by numbers of freemen, who found their rights taken from them by the king, and heavy taxes imposed upon them.

With the Viking invasions of the British Isles I shall not trouble you in these pages, because I assume that you have a good general knowledge of British history. Neither in Britain nor elsewhere did the Vikings set up kingdoms that endured for any length of time. In the end they mingled with the races amongst whom they settled, and in course of time lost their character as a separate race. To the peoples who absorbed them they gave a new strain of courage, daring, and adventure.

In May 841, twenty-seven years after the death of Charles the Great, a fleet of Norse pirates for the first time sailed up the mouth of the Seine. Hitherto they had confined their ravages to the coasts. Their chief made straight for the city of Rouen, and did not suffer his followers to slacken oar or sail, or to touch the tempting country through which they passed, until the great prize was struck. The city was occupied for three days, during which time it was thoroughly sacked. After setting fire to it the pirates sailed away, their ships loaded to the gunwale with captives and booty. Between 848 and 861 they returned to the Seine several times. A reign of terror set in, and men prayed in their churches: "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord, deliver us."

It is said that amongst the pirates who sacked Rouen was one Rollo, or Rolf, who was destined to be the founder of Normandy, the only Scandinavian settlement in France that played a part in history. Rolf was a huge man, so tall that he could not ride the small horses of his own country. Because he went on foot he was known as the Ganger or walker. After numerous successful forays he gained possession of Rouen by means of a trick which reminds us very much of the method by which the Greeks captured Troy. Once in full possession of the city, he devastated the country round about, and finally laid siege to Paris itself.

The King of France at that time was Charles the Simple, that child of five who was set aside in the year 884, when the empire of Charles the Great was reunited for a time under Charles the Fat. He, you will remember, was deposed three years later; whereupon Otho, the Count of Paris, usurped the throne. Nevertheless, the child Charles was crowned at Reims; and five years later, when nine years of age, became king. He was known as Charles the Simple, because he was a poor, feeble-minded creature. When Rollo and his Vikings beset Paris, Charles was forced to treat him just as the English king Alfred had treated Guthrum, the leader of the Northmen who invaded England. A treaty was made (911) by which Rollo was to become a Christian, do homage to Charles as his vassal, and receive that large part of North France which was afterwards known as Normandy. Rouen was the heart of the new state, which took in lands on both sides of the Seine.

When Rollo learned that doing homage to Charles meant that he must kiss the king's foot, he refused to degrade himself by such an act, and once more laid siege to Paris. At last the French king agreed that one of Rolf's men should do homage in his stead. A Viking was chosen "from the ranks," and at the appointed time this worthy strode up to the stool on which Charles was sitting; but instead of stooping to kiss the king's foot, seized the king's leg and jerked it up to his mouth. In doing so he tilted the monarch off his seat. Swords were drawn, and bloodshed was threatened; but the king, who on this occasion was not so simple as he appeared, poured oil on the troubled waters by declaring that he had received a well-merited lesson.

Thus the Vikings gained a footing in North France. As they came from the north, it was quite natural that the French people should call them Northmen, and their land Northmen's land. In the course of time this name became softened into Normandy. The newcomers did not at once unite with the native population, but held themselves proudly aloof, retaining their own language, manners, and customs. In the end, however, they blended with the people among whom they lived. They adopted Christianity; they threw off their semi-barbarous ways, and became the most civilized race in Europe, though always turbulent, quick to anger, and eager for battle.

Rollo died in 911, in the year of the treaty by which he secured Normandy. A hundred and fifty years later the Normans had become the foremost race in Europe. They learned or discovered new modes of fighting, and they used such new weapons as the lance and the mace. They were masterly horsemen, and their fame as warriors spread far and wide. They built magnificent cathedrals and founded churches and monasteries. The descendants of the rough pirate chiefs had become courtly knights and learned bishops.

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I must now continue the story of France from the year of the treaty which gave Rollo Normandy to the day on which the Normans made ready to invade England, and begin that connection between England and France which led to a long, bitter, and wasteful strife, and laid the foundations of a hatred between Englishmen and Frenchmen which continued until modern times. In 922 the French nobles became so disgusted with the feebleness of their king that they crowned one of their number, Duke Robert, who drove Charles into his stronghold of Laon. The Normans came to his assistance, but one of the rebel lords managed to trap the king and keep him prisoner until his death, in 929.

Another noble was chosen king; but on his death, seven years later, the old line was restored in the person of Louis IV., who had been reared in England. This king and his son, Louis V., kept possession of the shaking throne for half a century; but they ruled over little more than Laon and the country immediately around it. When Louis V. died, in 987, without leaving any heir but his uncle, the nobles crowned Hugh, Duke of France, grandson of the Duke Robert who had thrust Charles from the throne. Hugh had long been the most powerful man in France, and he firmly established himself as king. He was known as Hugh Capet, and it is said that he received this name because, being an abbot as well

FEUDAL LORD EMANCIPATING HIS SERFS.

(*From the picture by E. Armitage, R.A.*)

as a duke, he wore the *cappa* or hood of his order. Hugh was the first of the *Capetian* line of kings, which ruled France for more than three centuries.

We must not suppose that the new king was a monarch of such might and authority as Charles the Great. His power was crippled and curbed by the feudal system, which I shall now describe. He was little more than a prince in a republic of princes, each of whom was lord and master in his own domain.

Feudalism grew up amongst the Franks, and was a mixture of Roman and German ideas. The Roman emperors had been in the habit of granting lands on the borders of the empire to time-expired soldiers, on condition that they would give military service whenever required. The German chieftains, when they went forth to conquest, were accompanied by companions, who expected to receive as the reward of their services grants of land in the conquered territories. The war-chiefs, when handing over these lands, which were known as fiefs, made their followers swear to be faithful, to perform certain services, and to fight for them when called upon to do so. The feudal lords on the Continent received the lands granted to them as their very own, and no one could disturb them so long as they performed the services agreed upon and followed their lord to war.

When these vassals died their sons succeeded to their fiefs, and swore the same oaths which their fathers had made to the lord or to his heirs. They, in turn, parcelled out their estates to their own followers on the same conditions; and thus it came about that the original lord, whom we will now call the king, had lost authority over all his people except those who held their land directly from him. The vassals of the feudal lords had to follow their lords even against the king. Each feudal lord in his castle was an independent sovereign, who owed certain duties to his overlord, but was monarch of all he surveyed in his own territory.

We may liken the feudal system to a pyramid of stones. At the top was the king. Next below him were the great lords, to whom he had given large estates. Below these, again, were the lesser lords, to whom the great lords had given land. Below them were the bulk of the people, the great mass of whom were *villeins* or *serfs* attached to the estates, and passing with them when they changed hands.

Such was the feudalism of the Continent which prevailed for centuries, and was only broken down by slow and painful degrees. The country was dotted with castles, in which the feudal lords maintained themselves and their fighting men—in most cases as robber chieftains. The rivalries of these feudal lords were constant, and little wars were always going on somewhere or other in the country. Great lords sometimes defied the king, and he was forced to march against them and put them down. Most of these little wars resolved themselves into sieges of the strongholds held by the rebels. You can easily understand that under the feudal system might was right.

Before leaving the story of the Normans, I must say a few words about the kingdom which they set up in Sicily. In 1016 a band of Normans returning from a pilgrimage to Palestine were shipwrecked near Salerno, on the coast of Sicily. They aided the prince of that town in a battle against the Saracens, and carried back with them to Normandy rich gifts. Some of their fellow-countrymen then formed warrior bands, and sailed for Sicily, where they offered their services to the highest bidder. About 1027 the Duke of Naples employed one of these bands, and rewarded its leader with a small territory in South Italy.

Having thus gained a foothold on Italian soil, the Normans began to extend their boundaries by force of arms. By 1057 we find Robert Guiscard bearing the title of Count of Apulia, and later receiving from the Pope those parts of South Italy which were in the hands of the Saracens. After about thirty years of warfare the Moslem power was broken, and the Normans became masters of Sicily.

Robert, who was an able and ambitious ruler, had married his daughter to a Greek emperor of Constantinople, who had been driven from his throne. Seizing the opportunity, he gathered an army and invaded the Greek Empire. Before long much of Epirus and Thessaly was in his hands; but at this moment Pope Gregory VII., who had blessed his enterprise, had need of his services elsewhere. Pope Gregory, at this time, was practically a prisoner in the hands of Henry IV. (See page 142.) Robert sailed for Italy, drove off Henry, and freed the Pope. Then he returned to Greece, but could make no headway, and was forced to leave the country.

Though unsuccessful in Greece, Robert founded a duchy in Sicily and South Italy, which in the year 1130 became the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

*Read:* C. W. Whistler's *A Sea-Queen's Sailing* (Nelson).

## 19. THE POWER OF THE POPES.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns: Æthelred** (979); **William I.** (1066); **John** (1199).]

In the preceding lesson I told you how, under the system known as feudalism, the power of the great barons grievously encroached upon that of the king. In order to strengthen himself against his nobles Hugh Capet fostered the power of the Church. He gave rich estates to the higher clergy, and was their patron and protector. In return, the Pope created him Defender of the Church. Hugh's last words to his son, Robert the Pious, who succeeded to the throne in 996, were warnings not to do anything which would bring down upon him the ban of the Church. Robert was a good man, but was foolishly charitable, and by no means a strong ruler. Before long he quarrelled with the Pope.

He had married a distant cousin against the laws of the Church, and when he was bidden to put her away he refused. Thereupon the Pope drove him and his wife out of the Church, and placed the land under an interdict—that is, he pronounced a kind of religious boycott against France. The churches were closed; no services were held; children were not baptized;

marriages were not solemnized; and the dead were buried without the customary prayers. This was a terrible punishment, and it soon brought Robert to his knees. He put away his wife and married another, and then the Pope freed the land from the interdict.

I have related this incident in order to show you how strong the Church had become in the time of Robert the Pious. Let me tell you very briefly how the Church rose to this height of power. For the first two hundred years of its existence each bishop was practically independent of all other bishops. Gradually, however, the government of the Church came to resemble that of the Roman Empire. As there was a governor at the head of each province, so there came to be an archbishop at the head of the bishops in each province. When the provinces became grouped together an over-archbishop became the head of the Church in the grouped provinces. In the sixth century there were five of these over-archbishops, with their seats at Jerusalem, Antioch, Alexandria, Constantinople, and Rome.

Now the Bishop of Rome was the only over-archbishop in the West, and as he had his seat in the old capital of the empire, it was natural to think of him as holding the same authority over the Church as the emperor held over the empire. In course of time the over-archbishops in the East began to quarrel amongst themselves, and they so frequently asked the Bishop of Rome to decide their disputes, that in the end he declared that he had the right to judge between them. The over-archbishops would not agree to this, and for nearly a hundred years the question was debated at councils of the Church. At last Leo the Great, who was Bishop of Rome from 440 to 461, declared that as the Church of Rome had been founded by Peter, prince of the apostles, the bishops of Rome ought to be considered the head of the whole Church. In course of time this claim was admitted.

One reason why the bishops of Rome came to be recognized as the head of the whole Church was that they had played a very large part in converting the barbarians of Western Europe to Christianity. Every boy and every girl remembers the story of how Gregory, seeing fair-haired Angles offered for sale as slaves in Rome, said, "Not Angles, but angels," and forthwith sent missionaries to England. The English accepted the supremacy of the Bishop of Rome, and in the eleventh century the Scottish Church also acknowledged him as its spiritual head. The Irish Church did not, however, yield obedience to Rome until the latter part of the next century. Not only did the bishops of Rome send missionaries to England, but also to the German tribes; and when they became Christians, they too regarded the Pope as their spiritual king.

Constantine, you will remember, was a faithful son of the Church. He included the bishops in his system of government, and gave large powers to the Bishop of Rome. So strong did the Pope become that when a later emperor interfered in the beliefs and practices of the Church, he was put under the ban. The people of Italy had always resented the removal of the capital to Constantinople, and they naturally sided with the popes against the officials of the emperors. A bitter quarrel arose in 726 because the Byzantine emperor Leo took the side of a party called the *Iconoclasts*, or image-breakers; and this led to a split in the Church, just as there had been a split in the empire. Thenceforth there was not only a Western or Roman Church, but an Eastern or Greek Church as well. The Tsars of Russia, claiming to be the successors of the Byzantine Cæsars, became in time the head of the Eastern Church.

You will remember that the Pope in the year 800 actually crowned Charles the Great emperor, and by so doing defied the emperor at Constantinople. He also did this in the case of succeeding emperors, and at last no one questioned his right to confer the imperial crown. He continued to crown the emperors for centuries.

As the years went by the popes grew more and more powerful. They came into conflict with the emperors over the question of land. Rich estates were conferred on the Church, and the bishops thus became feudal lords. The emperors refused to allow the bishops to take office until they had sworn an oath of allegiance to them, and had been placed by them

ST. PETER'S AND CASTLE OF ST. ANGELO.

In this castle, which was erected by Hadrian, Pope Gregory was besieged by the Emperor Henry IV.

in possession of the Church estates. The popes, on the other hand, resisted this claim on the part of the emperors. They now began to assert themselves as kings of kings and lords of lords. We shall see in later lessons that this claim gave rise to bitter disputes, and that in the course of these disputes the Church played a large part in breaking down feudalism.

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After the death of Robert the Pious, whose last years were again troubled by a conflict with the Pope, and also by the rebellion of his sons, a weak, harmless prince named Henry I. followed his father on the throne. He was but a shadow-king ; the great barons were far more powerful than he was. The proudest and strongest of them, Robert the Devil as he was called, fought for Henry, and proved himself worthy of his name. This Robert was the father of that Duke William who in 1066 won the battle of Hastings and made himself king of England. His conquest is important in the history of France, for it was the beginning of that connection between the two countries which led to a long and devastating warfare, lasting until the middle of the fifteenth century.

William, Duke of Normandy, was one of the most masterful men who ever lived. He was watchful, patient, cunning, and ruthless, and these qualities he displayed even in his wooing. When Matilda, daughter of the Earl of Flanders, rejected his suit, both on account of his birth and because she loved another, he waited for her in the streets of Bruges, and forthwith rolled her in the dirt and soundly cuffed her ears. Strange to say, this violent method of courtship was successful. Matilda went home, changed her attire, put ointment on her bruises, and when next her lover presented himself declared that "the marriage pleased her well."

Hard and heavy was his hand on England. He was harsh and cruel to his new subjects, but not unjust. He strove to rule England as a lawful king; but the many revolts which arose drove him to hard fighting, burning, and slaying for many a year. After every revolt the lands of the insurgents changed hands, and Norman knights secured the fairest estates in the country. Castles of stone sprang up, and feudalism was established. But William, mindful of the evils of the system in France, was careful to bind every vassal to himself by an oath of allegiance. Thus he maintained that kingly power which was almost non-existent across the Channel.

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While William reigned in England, Philip I., son of Henry I., occupied the French throne. He was a weak and worthless king, and by his seizure and sale of Church lands and his unlawful marriage brought down upon himself the anger of the Pope. This Pope was Gregory VII., the greatest Pope of history, and one of the greatest men of the Middle Ages. A man of humble birth but of great gifts, he rose by his ability and energy to be a cardinal—that is, a prince of the Church—and the Pope's chief counsellor. Up to this time the election of Pope was supposed to be in the hands of the clergy and the people of Rome, but their quarrels had permitted the emperor to step in and name the Pope. Gregory, as the Pope's chief counsellor, deprived both clergy and people of their votes, and gave the election of a new pope into the hands of the cardinals.

In 1073, seven years after the battle of Hastings, Gregory became Pope. He was not an ambitious man, but he believed the Church to be the kingdom of God, and held that the Pope, who stood at its head upon earth, ought to have absolute authority over all the world. He gave up his life to the task of setting the Church above the power of kings. In order that the priests should give all their time and thought to their sacred duties, he forbade them to marry. Then he made a decree taking away from the emperor and the kings their right of conferring Church lands upon the higher clergy in the feudal manner.

This decree, which was made in 1075, brought about a quarrel between the Pope and the Emperor Henry IV. of Germany. Henry called a council of his bishops, and got them to depose Gregory; whereupon Gregory excommunicated the emperor, and informed the Germans that they need no longer obey him. Some of his dissatisfied nobles forced him for a time to give up his kingship, and the Pope ordered him to be tried before a council. Henry, however, escaped into Lombardy, where the people flocked to him. Gregory withdrew to the castle of Canossa, and Henry sent messengers to him to say that he wished to make peace and receive absolution. At first Gregory would not receive him, but afterwards agreed to do so. When Henry arrived he had to wear the dress of a penitent, and was kept waiting in a courtyard for three days in the depth of winter. Only at the end of that time would Gregory admit him to his presence and remove the ban from him. "Going to Canossa" has passed into a proverb.

Gregory had triumphed, and Henry had been greatly humbled, but his determination had not changed. As soon as he was freed from excommunication he began to plot against Gregory, and to fight those of his subjects who had supported the Pope. The war dragged on for years, and again the Pope put him under the ban and set up two kings against him. But Henry overcame them, seized Rome, and besieged Gregory in his castle of St. Angelo. The Pope called upon the Normans of Sicily to help him, and, as you know, they came at his call. Henry was driven from Rome, and then the Normans pillaged the city. This so angered the Romans that they drove out Gregory, who withdrew with the Normans to Sicily, where he died.

The quarrel about *investitures* went on long after the lives of Gregory and Henry. It was ended in 1122 by a compromise. The Emperor Henry V. agreed that the Pope should invest the bishops in their Church offices, and that the emperor should invest them with their lands and revenues as their feudal superior. The same sort of quarrel in England had led to the excommunication of King John (1208), and to an interdict which lasted six years. In the end John was forced to surrender his kingdom to the Pope; he received it back as the Pope's vassal.

I am now running ahead of my story, but it will be convenient to finish in this lesson what I have to say about the papal power. Innocent III., the Pope who excommunicated and deposed King John, made the papal power stronger than it had been before or was thereafter to be. He strove to make himself absolute master of Italy, and to put all the states of the West under his control, so that neither king nor emperor might be independent of him. Further, he decreed that the Holy Land must be recovered from the Moslem, the Eastern Church must be purified of its heresy and reunited with the Church of Rome, and all heretics must be destroyed.

We shall see in the next lesson how an attempt was made to recover the Holy Land from the Saracens. Here I will tell you of a crusade begun three years before Innocent's death against the Albigenses, a sect of early Protestants inhabiting the county of Toulouse, and so called because their chief town was Albi. The region in which they dwelt was at that time the most civilized and flourishing part of Western Europe.

Pope Innocent employed a Spanish monk named Dominic, the founder of the order of the Dominicans, to preach a crusade or holy war against these heretics. Simon de Montfort, father of the noble who afterwards set up the first parliament in England and was killed at the battle of Evesham (1265), led the crusade. The Count of Toulouse would not at first agree to the slaughter of his best subjects, but he was forced to take part in it. The war began in 1209, and peace was not finally made until twenty years later. The whole region was devastated with fire and sword, and heresy was stamped out by wholesale slaughter. Finally, the county of Toulouse was added to the dominions of France. The power of the popes reached its greatest height during the generations which followed this terrible crusade.

*Read:* Charles Kingsley's *Hereward the Wake* (Nelson).

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## 20. THE CRUSADES.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns: William I.** (1066) **to Henry III.** (1216).]

During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries European history is largely concerned with that series of religious wars carried on by the Christians of the West against the Mohammedans, and known as Crusades. The word *crusade* is derived from the French word *croix*, a cross, and the Crusaders were so called because they wore a red cross on their breasts. In the time of Pope Gregory VII. the practice of going on pilgrimage to various holy places, and especially to hallowed spots in Palestine, became common. We still possess a fourth century pilgrims' guide to Jerusalem by way of Constantinople; and in 1064 we read that a caravan of seven thousand pilgrims, accompanied by an archbishop and four bishops, while making its way to Jerusalem, was attacked near the Holy City by Bedouin Arabs, and only saved from destruction by a Saracen emir. When the pilgrims returned, they spoke bitterly of the shame with which they saw the sepulchre of Christ, and the sacred fields on which their Saviour had trod, in the hands of infidel Turks.

In the year 1094 two rival popes strove for the chair of St. Peter, and one of them, Urban II., gave his support to a monk named Peter the Hermit, who had been maltreated in Palestine, and who went to and fro preaching with frenzied zeal the duty of wresting the Holy Land from the infidel. In that year Urban addressed a great, excited meeting of thousands of bishops, clergy, and laity in the neighbourhood of Clermont. He was one of the most eloquent men of his time, and after describing the barbarous treatment of Christians in Palestine by the Turks, he cried: "You who have received the true faith, and have been endowed by God with power and strength and greatness of soul—whose ancestors have been the prop of Christendom, and whose kings have put a barrier against the progress of the infidel—I call upon you to wipe off these impurities from the face of the earth, and to lift your oppressed fellow-Christians from the depths into which they have been trampled."

The effect of his words was wonderful, and the great assembly could scarcely restrain itself. Urban then went on to point out not only the spiritual but the material advantages which would be gained by those who took up arms in the service of the Cross. Palestine, he said, was a land flowing with milk and honey, and precious in the sight of God as the scene of the grand events which had saved mankind. That land, he promised,

THE PREACHING OF THE FIRST CRUSADE—"GOD WILLS IT!"

(*From the picture by James Archer, R.S.A. By permission of the Autotype Co.*)

should be divided among them. Moreover, they would win full pardon for all their offences against God and man.

At this the people broke into loud shouts of "God wills it! God wills it!" and departed to their homes eager for the great adventure. Two years later, while a military expedition was preparing, a huge mob of men, women, and children, almost unarmed and without provisions, set off for the Holy Land under the leadership of Walter the Penniless and Peter the Hermit. They reached Constantinople with 100,000 followers, and crossed into Asia Minor, where all but about three thousand of them were ruthlessly slaughtered. "Of the first Crusaders," says Gibbon, "three hundred thousand had already perished before a single city was rescued from the infidels—before their graver and more noble brethren had completed the preparations for their enterprise."

In the summer of 1096 the armies of the real Crusade, under princes and knights, such as Godfrey of Bouillon, a brave and accomplished soldier of lofty mind and pure motive; Robert, Duke of Normandy, who had mortgaged his dukedom to his brother the King of England in order to equip his forces; Count Robert of Flanders, Count Stephen of Chartres, Count Raymond of Toulouse, and many others, were set in motion. Six armies, numbering in all 600,000 men, started by different routes for Constantinople. The main strength of this host consisted of about 100,000 mail-clad horsemen; the footmen were chiefly archers, armed with the longbow and the crossbow.

I have already told you something of the Saracens against whom the Crusaders were now arrayed. In Lesson 16 you learned that, impelled by religious zeal, they had set out from Arabia to conquer the world, and that Syria, Egypt, and Spain fell before them. In the middle of the eleventh century a conqueror named Alp-Arslan, leader of the Seljuk Turks, defeated the Byzantine emperor, and made himself master of most of Asia Minor. He set up his capital at Nicæa, about fifty miles south-east of Constantinople.

During the five centuries after Mohammed's death the Saracens built up a civilization far in advance of that of Europe. They restored the old Roman roads and built new ones, constructed canals and aqueducts, and even set up a postal system. Some of their buildings still remain to show that they were gifted artists. Their mosques became seats of learning, and their universities—such as that of Cairo, which still exists—were largely attended. Libraries were formed, some of which contained several hundred thousand volumes, and valuable books were written. The Arabs were great mathematicians; they invented algebra and advanced the science of astronomy. They also studied the body, and were excellent surgeons. In chemistry they made a good beginning, and they knew more than any people of their time about scientific farming. Their commerce was on a large scale, and their markets were attended by traders from all parts of Europe and Asia. Their caravans traversed their empire from end to end, and their ships were seen in all the ports.

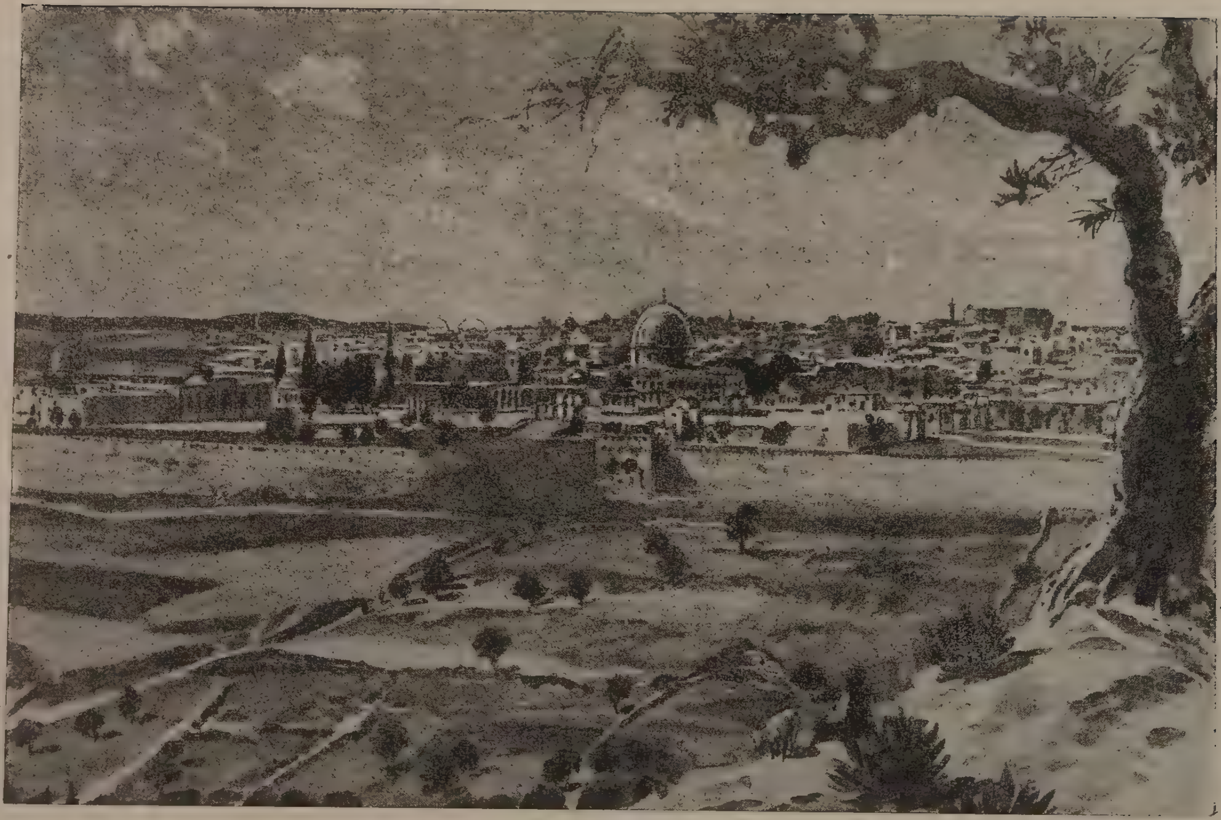
Such were the people against whom the Crusaders now advanced. The empire of the Saracens had been formed under the stress of religious zeal for Mohammedanism; it was now to be attacked by men equally zealous for Christianity. In 1097 the Crusaders crossed the Bosporus, and captured Nicæa after a siege of seven weeks. The march through Asia Minor was difficult, and many perished by the way from hunger and thirst. In October 1097 Antioch was besieged, and after several months its gates were treacherously opened. There was a great scramble for spoil, and the Turks of the city were ruthlessly slaughtered.

Three days later the Crusaders themselves were besieged by the Saracens; but the besieging army was destroyed, and the way was open for a march on Jerusalem. After seven weeks' siege the Holy City was stormed on July 15, 1099. When the Crusaders were safely in the city, a quarrel began as to what should be done with it. The clergy wished to set it up as a Church state under the rule of an archbishop; but to this the princes would not agree. Finally, Godfrey of Bouillon was appointed governor, and a few days later the Crusaders began their return journey. They had lost a large number of men, and had accomplished very little. But Christendom was greatly elated, and honours were showered on the Crusaders.

There were seven crusades in all, between the years 1096 and 1270; but only the second, third, and fourth need detain us. For about half a century the Christian dominions in the East—which consisted of Jerusalem, Antioch, Edessa, and the county of Tripoli, lying between Jerusalem and Antioch—maintained themselves against the attacks of the Mohammedans. In 1144 arose an emir who began a career of conquest by taking Edessa and threatening the other Christian kingdoms. The fall of Edessa caused great consternation in Europe, but nothing was done for three years. A change had come over the spirit of the people. The popes, for various reasons, were not so powerful as they had been; kings were busy strengthening their kingdoms, and were not eager for foreign adventures; and the people generally had begun to think more of this world than of the next.

The preaching of a crusade in these circumstances was not easy, but Bernard of Clairvaux, by his eloquence, overcame all difficulties. He enlisted Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany, and in 1147 a force of 300,000 men, horse and foot, set out for Constantinople. The Byzantine emperor played the Crusaders false: he hampered their movements, sold them bad food, and gave them guides who misled them. Conrad's army was almost destroyed in Asia Minor before the arrival of Louis, and the Crusade was a total failure. Only a remnant of the Crusaders reached Jerusalem, from which they were forced to return ingloriously. Christendom was so disgusted that forty years passed before another crusade was preached.

The Third Crusade figures largely in English history, because Richard of the Lion Heart was its chief hero. His opponent, Saladin, was a man of the same chivalrous type of mind, and well worthy to cross swords with him. The Third Crusade came about in this wise. In the year 1187 Saladin made himself master of Western Asia. He was prepared to treat the Syrian Christians well, but their intrigues and treachery forced him to make war upon them. He captured their strongholds one by one; and when Jerusalem fell, Europe was touched to the quick. Three Christian monarchs prepared to take the field against him—Frederick Barbarossa, Emperor of



THE CITY OF JERUSALEM.

Germany, Philip Augustus of France, and, as already stated, Richard I. of England.

Frederick was a veteran soldier, who made the most careful preparations. He led 100,000 men through Asia Minor, but after he was drowned while crossing a swollen river his leaderless army melted away. The armies of Philip and Richard were conveyed by sea, and before they reached their destination the two monarchs had quarrelled. I need not tell you the familiar story. Philip, jealous of Richard, withdrew from the enterprise; and Richard, after performing prodigies of valour, refused to gaze upon the city which he was powerless to capture. Saladin made a truce with him, and, out of courtesy, left the city and the holy tomb open to Christians. This generous and knightly monarch died in 1193.

Christendom was greatly discouraged at the failure of the Third Crusade, and until 1203 there was no further attempt. The new crusading army consisted for the most part of soldiers of fortune. Arrangements had been made with Venice, which had risen to be a great sea power, to convey them to the Holy Land. The knights, however, could not find all the money required to pay for the transports, and they agreed to work their passage by helping the Venetians to reduce a pirate city on the coast of Dalmatia.

When the city was captured, the Crusaders demanded to be carried to Egypt, where they proposed to attack the Mohammedan power. But the Venetians were very unwilling to attack Egypt, because they carried on a rich trade with that country. The Doge, or Duke, of Venice, "blind old Dandolo," proposed that they should capture Constantinople instead, and they agreed to do so. An exiled emperor offered the Crusaders a large sum to restore him to the throne, and in spite of the protests of the Pope, they took Constantinople for him (July 1203). The restored emperor, however, could not pay the price agreed upon; so the Crusaders again seized Constantinople (April 1204), and this time completely sacked it. A Latin kingdom was set up which existed until 1261, when the Greeks put an end to it and restored an emperor of their own.

Venice was the chief gainer by this so-called Crusade. As her share of the spoils she received many of the Greek islands and special trading privileges at Constantinople. The consequence was that she controlled the Eastern Mediterranean, and became the chief commercial Power of Europe.

These crusades and those which followed all failed. Millions of lives and vast wealth had been squandered, and the crusading zeal had died out. But both directly and indirectly the crusades had a marked effect upon Europe. They did much to increase the power of the popes, especially during the first hundred years, and the Church was enriched by the lands bequeathed to her by Crusaders who, dying without heirs, made over their possessions to the spiritual power. For the protection and succour of pilgrims to the Holy Land certain half-monkish, half-military orders were established—such as the Knights Templars and the Knights of St. John. In Cyprus, Rhodes, and Malta these orders founded settlements which lasted for many years. The Teutonic Knights, as we shall read later, conquered the heathen along the Baltic coasts, and laid the foundations of the kingdom of Prussia.

One important effect of the crusades was to bring about a trading connection between Europe and Asia. Shipbuilding greatly increased, and regular voyages were made to the ports of Western Asia. Many new objects of merchandise were introduced—such as wines, sugar, cotton, silk, rugs, and pottery. Then, too, the journeys of the Crusaders opened their eyes and enlarged their knowledge, as travel always does. They came in contact with other nations, and found that they could learn much from them. Bathing and the eating of fruit were two of the pleasures of life in a hot climate, and these habits were introduced into Western Europe by the Crusaders. New knowledge was brought to Europe from the East, and it prepared the minds of Western men for that revival of learning which was to appear in the middle of the sixteenth century.

Finally, the crusades helped to break down feudalism. The feudal lords frequently ran deep in debt in order to fit out themselves and their followers for the venture. Many of them perished in the wars, and their lands passed into the hands of the trading class. A new nobility, founded on wealth and not on birth, arose, and these men did their utmost to make the land pay a good dividend. They needed labourers for this purpose, and were ready to give them wages. The consequence was that many of the serfs became day labourers. In this and in other ways feudalism was weakened.

It is interesting to note that the ideal of the Crusaders was fully realized on December 9, 1917, when the Holy City surrendered to the British and their Allies.

*Read: Richard of the Lion Heart,* an abridgment of *The Talisman* by Sir Walter Scott (Nelson).

## 21. GERMANY IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns: Alfred** (871) **to Henry V.** (1413).]

In Lesson 17 you learned that the kingdom of Germany dates from the Treaty of Verdun (843), by which the wide dominions of Charles the Great were divided between three of his grandsons. Lothair, the eldest, became emperor, and received the kingdom of Italy and a strip of territory stretching from the Mediterranean to the North Sea. To Charles the Bold was assigned most of what is now France, and to Louis the German nearly all the territory which his grandfather had ruled east of the Rhine. A glance at the map on page 127 will make this division of the empire clear to you.

The new German kingdom had been set up by conspiracy and rebellion, and at first it seemed as though the sins of its founder were to be visited on his realm. The seventy-five years which followed the Treaty of Verdun were, perhaps, the most wretched in German history. Swarms of invaders harried the state on every side. Northmen burned the newly-founded town of Hamburg; Slavs came pressing in from South Russia; and a new foe, the Magyars, a Mongol race akin to the Huns, made raids right across the country as far as the Rhine. In the midst of all the confusion and bloodshed there was a serious danger that the new kingdom would come to a violent end.

You must not suppose that Germany was the only country which was troubled by invaders at this time; all parts of the old empire of Charlemagne were beset by them. To make matters worse, Lothair and Charles the Bold were weak, incapable men, who could make no headway against their fierce and persistent foes. Louis, on the other hand, was a vigorous ruler; but instead of devoting himself to the task of driving out the Northmen, Slavs, and Magyars, he took advantage of his brothers' difficulties to win some of their territory for himself. Before he died, in the year 876, he had swallowed up all Lothair's kingdom, with the exception of Burgundy and Italy.

I shall pass over the next thirty-five years very rapidly. When Louis died his kingdom, according to the old Frankish custom, was divided among his three sons. The two elder died without heirs, and the remaining son, Charles the Fat, was able for three years to reunite under his rule France, Germany, and Italy. When, however, he was deposed (887) the empire fell to pieces again. The Germans gave the crown to a grandson of Louis named Arnulf, and he fought hard and well against the Magyars, but could not overcome them. The feeble son who succeeded him died in 911, and with him the line of Charlemagne came to an end.

Some of the nobles now chose Conrad, one of their number, as the new king; but he was king merely in name. Germany at this time consisted of five great duchies, each of which had its own laws, customs, and interests. The great dukes were kings of their own domains, and the King of Germany was little more than their shadowy overlord. Feudalism was rooting itself more and more in the country, and, as in France, it tended to make the king a mere figurehead. Conrad strove hard to be a real king, but he failed. His great opponent was Henry the Fowler, Duke of Saxony, who was lord of the strongest of all the German duchies, and master of the most warlike people in the country. When Conrad lay on his death-bed he urged his nobles to bestow the crown upon his great rival. They did so, and Henry became king in the year 919.

Henry was a man of strong common-sense. Instead of trying to make the other dukes obey him, he devoted himself to the task of driving the barbarians out of the country. When they were disposed of he made plans for defending his borders. He gave frontier estates to his vassals on condition that they would keep out the invaders. A frontier estate of this kind was called a *mark*, and the holder of it a *margrave*. One of the most famous of these marks was intended to guard the valley of the Danube, and was known as the *Ost*, or East, Mark. Its German name was *Oster Reich*, from which is derived our word Austria.

Henry not only drove out the invaders, but forced those Slavs who had settled in Bohemia, and were known as Czechs,* to submit to him. In various other ways he extended his power, and pushed out the borders of Saxony towards the east. He died in 936, and his strong, shrewd son Otto I., known as Otto the Great, continued his work. Otto defeated the Magyars, forcibly baptized them, and compelled them to settle in what is now Hungary. Under his vigorous rule Saxony was still further extended eastward. His missionaries were successful in converting the Slav tribes of what is now Prussia.

Otto determined to be king in fact as well as in name. He cut down the power of the dukes, and, when they rose in rebellion, subdued them, and disposed of their duchies as he thought fit. Franconia he took for himself. Bavaria he gave to one of his brothers, Swabia to his son, and Lotharingia to his son-in-law. Nevertheless he did not permit these relatives to retain the almost royal power of the former dukes. At each court he himself was represented by a "count palatine," who watched over his interests. Otto also ruled the Church with a strong hand.

Before long he turned his eyes to Italy. He wished to be emperor, and to revive the glories of Charles the Great. As you know, no emperor considered himself entitled to that lofty office unless he was master of Italy, and was crowned by the Pope at St. Peter's in Rome. In 951 Otto crossed the Alps with a great army, put to flight his only opponent, assumed the title of King of Italy, and marched on Rome. There

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* Pronounced *checks*.

ST. PETER'S, ROME.

he was crowned emperor by the Pope early in the following year.

In former pages you have read of the quarrels which arose between the German emperors and the popes. These quarrels began again in the reign of Otto's son and successor, Otto II. He neglected the interests of Germany, and devoted himself to Italy; but before he could drive the Greeks and Saracens from the south of the peninsula, he died. The new king, Otto III., had been brought up by the clergy, and his great desire was to reform the Church and advance learning. He was a high-minded and gifted young man, but was very unpractical, and Germany was very badly governed in his time. The dukes regained much of their power, and the bishops opposed him. When he died, in his twenty-second year, the dukes chose Henry, Duke of Bavaria, a great-grandson of Henry the Fowler, to succeed him. This Henry, who is known to history as Henry II., continued the policy of Otto I., but without the success which that great sovereign had attained. When he died the line of Saxon emperors came to an end.

A Franconian count named Conrad was now chosen king (1024). In his shrewd common-sense he resembled Henry the Fowler. He ruled Church and State with great vigour, broke the power of the dukes, and won back some of the territory which the Slavs had regained since the days of Otto I. The old childless King of Burgundy named him as his heir, and when he died the last remaining part of Lothair's old realm was added to the empire. It will interest you to learn that, when Conrad was crowned at Rome, Canute, King of Denmark, Norway, and England, was present at the ceremony. Under Conrad and his son, Henry III., the German kingdom and the empire reached their zenith. None of the later sovereigns, some of whom were brilliant men, had so much real power as the first two Franconian emperors.

We now come to the reign of Henry IV., who began to rule in 1065. He taxed his people so heavily, and took away their ancient rights so ruthlessly, that they rose in rebellion against him. Nearly all his subjects deserted him, and he was obliged to purchase peace by making a bargain with them.

The Saxon peasants, however, refused to be bound by this bargain, and Henry marched against them. He defeated them, and then refused to fulfil his promises.

It was while affairs were in this condition that Pope Gregory was able to humble him, as you read in Lesson 19. Henry "went to Canossa," and though he afterwards struggled hard to uphold the cause of the empire against the Papacy, he laboured in vain. In 1105 he was forced by the nobles, led by his own son, to resign his throne. All through the reign of this treacherous son, Henry V., the quarrel with the Papacy continued. As you know, a compromise was arranged in 1122, when it was agreed that the bishops should receive their spiritual authority from the Pope, but should pay homage to the king before they were elected to their offices. So ended the bitter quarrel about investitures; it had lasted fifty years, and had greatly weakened the power of the German kings. You must not, however, suppose that the struggle with the popes had now ceased; it was soon to break out with even greater violence than before.

When Henry V. died, in 1125, the line of Franconian kings came to an end. There were two candidates for the vacant throne—Conrad of Hohenstaufen, and Lothair, Duke of Saxony. With the help of the Church, Lothair was elected, but he was little more than the Pope's feudal subject. The Pope caused a picture to be painted showing Lothair kneeling at his feet and receiving the imperial crown from his hands. Lothair died in 1137, and in the following year Conrad was elected king. With him began the line of Hohenstaufen sovereigns, who ruled Germany for over a century.

The most notable of the Hohenstaufen sovereigns was Frederick I., known, because of his red beard, as *Barbarossa*. He was, perhaps, the most gifted and able of all the emperors of the Middle Ages. Pure, generous, and straightforward, strong, active, and graceful, a skilful commander and an eloquent speaker, Frederick was the ideal Christian monarch of his time. He was filled with the old Roman desire for empire, and he employed all his strength to put down violence and to unify Germany. In 1154 he marched into Italy, and in the following year was crowned emperor by Pope Adrian IV., the only Englishman who ever wore the triple crown.

Before long the old bitter quarrel between Pope and emperor broke out again. Adrian, in a message to the German princes, spoke of the empire as though it were a fief granted by the Pope. This claim to overlordship made the German nobles very angry, and led to a renewal of the struggle. Finally, Adrian's successor, Alexander III., forced Frederick to submit to him. You will remember that the emperor afterwards went on the Third Crusade, and was drowned while crossing a river in Cilicia (1190). The old legends say that he is not dead, but is sleeping in the hills, and that one day he will reappear to restore peace to the empire and purity to the Church.

Frederick's eldest son, Henry VI., succeeded him, and for two or three years played the emperor as none of his predecessors had done. All Italy obeyed him, and Germany did not rise against him. Richard of England had to swear allegiance to him as part payment for his release from captivity. Even the Christian kings of Cyprus and Armenia, and the Mohammedan princes of North Africa, acknowledged him as their overlord. He died in 1197, leaving as heir to the throne a child of three years of age. Then began the decline of the Hohenstaufens.

Frederick's grandson, Frederick II., who came to the throne in 1218, after a period of civil war, found the nobles and the Church all-powerful. He was an able and brilliant man, a statesman, a scholar, and a wise lawgiver, though not a distinguished general. The two great tasks of his life were to curb the power of the nobles and break down the authority of the popes. In the first task he met with some success, but in the second he failed. When he strove to make himself master of Italy the Pope placed him under the ban. In 1245 he was deposed, and five years later was driven from Italy. While preparing for a desperate effort to retrieve his fortunes he suddenly died. With him the greatness of the House of Hohenstaufen ended. His successors had brief and troubled reigns, and in 1268 the last of them was beheaded. Thus the long struggle ended with the victory of the Papacy and the destruction of the House of Hohenstaufen.

Germany was now in a terrible state of confusion. For nineteen years there was no king. The nobles filled the land with bloodshed and rapine. The cities banded together into an Hanseatic League to protect their commerce. The chief centres of this league were at Lübeck, Hamburg, and Wisby in Gothland. As, however, the ships of that day could not face winter storms, the league had many settlements abroad, the most famous being the "Steelyard" in London. The Hanse merchants were bankers and money-lenders on such a great scale that they sometimes received crown jewels in pawn, and provided the money for a king's ransom or the cost of a war. English people called them "Easterlings"—that is, men from the East. Our word *sterling*, or standard money, is derived from this name.

The period of confusion which followed the fall of the Hohenstaufens was ended by the Pope, who announced that, if the German princes did not choose an emperor, he would do so himself. Accordingly, in 1273, the princes elected Rudolf, Count of Hapsburg, whose castle stood in the valley of the Aar, just within Upper Burgundy. They chose Rudolf because they thought he was too weak a man to attempt to make them obey him. They were soon to be undeceived.

It is important to note that Rudolf's election was largely due to his nephew Frederick, who was governor of the city of Nuremberg, in Bavaria. This Frederick was the first notable member of the House of Hohenzollern, from which the present German emperor is descended. The original home of the house was the picturesque castle of Hohenzollern, which stands on a lofty, lonely crag in the wilds of Swabia. On this high rock the eagles formerly built their eyries; hence the crest of the Prussian royal family is the eagle.

Rudolf soon showed himself far stronger and far more capable than the princes had imagined him to be. He was a practical man and a brave warrior, and he increased the power of the crown and the domains of his family. He won Austria, Styria, and Carinthia, and bequeathed these duchies to his sons. The

Hapsburgs have held them ever since. Rudolf was wise in confining his energies to Germany, and in leaving Italy severely alone.

I do not propose to tell you the story of the German kings who reigned between the death of Rudolf in 1291 and the accession of Charles IV., son of the blind old King of Bohemia who was killed at Crécy (1346). In the reign of Charles IV. a very important document was issued, known as the Golden Bull, from the *bulla*, or capsule, which contained the emperor's seal. This Golden Bull is famous because it laid down the law as to the manner in which the emperor was to be elected in future. No one quite knew what princes had the right to vote at the election of an emperor, and this led to great confusion, and frequently to civil war. In the Golden Bull Charles decreed that there were to be seven Electors, seven being the sacred number. They were the archbishops of Mayence, Cologne, and Trèves, and the lay rulers of Saxony, Brandenburg, Bohemia, and the Palatinate. The Elector of Hanover, familiar in British history, was a later addition to the number. The electors were to meet at Frankfort-on-Main, and the coronation was to take place at Aachen, the old capital of Charlemagne. No mention was made of the Pope; his claim to interfere was set aside for ever. The Golden Bull regulated the election of the emperor until the Holy Roman Empire came to an end, in 1806.

In the reign of Charles's younger son, Sigismund, who became emperor in 1411, religious troubles broke out in Bohemia. John Huss, a professor of Prague University, who had been influenced by the teachings of John Wycliffe, began to deny the authority of the Pope, to denounce abuses in church government, and to call in question several Catholic doctrines. Huss became a national hero, and his opinions spread like wildfire.

He was invited by Sigismund to defend himself before the leaders of the Church, then assembled in conference at Constance. Huss agreed to do so, and the emperor gave him a safe-conduct. In spite of this, the Council tried him for heresy, condemned him, and had him burned at the stake (1415). The Bohemians, who believed that Huss had been betrayed, were indignant, and rose in rebellion. A crusade was preached against them; but when the army of the empire was called out, it lost several battles, and became the laughing-stock of Europe. Not until 1434 was Sigismund able to win over the more moderate Hussites, and to restore order. Three years later he died, leaving no male heir.

The election which followed led to a contest between the Hapsburgs and the Hohenzollerns. You have not forgotten the Frederick of Hohenzollern who helped Rudolf to secure the imperial throne. One of his successors was made governor of the Mark of Brandenburg. A notable day in the history of the Hohenzollerns was April 17, 1417, the day on which his descendant, Frederick II., received from the hands of the emperor the flag of Brandenburg. This Frederick coveted the imperial crown, but he had to stand aside in favour of Albert of Austria. Albert united under himself all the territory which has ever since been ruled by the Hapsburgs—Austria, Styria, Carniola, Tyrol, Bohemia, and Hungary. With him begins the long line of Hapsburg emperors. Thereafter for three hundred years Austria was the leading state in the Germanic empire.

*Read:* "The Crown of St. Stephen," in Miss Yonge's *A Book of Golden Deeds* (Nelson).

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## 22. JOAN THE MAID.

**[Contemporary English Sovereigns: Edward III.** (1327) **to Henry VI.** (1422).]

We now return to France, and try to picture a notable scene in the ancient cathedral of Reims. A great concourse of nobles in glittering armour, with pennons and banners, fills the nave. Trumpets are sounding, and outside the crowd raises cheer upon cheer. The sun streams in through the painted windows, casting rainbow hues on the gay, gallant throng. Ten thousand candles are burning, and the smoke of incense ascends.

At the high altar, clad in the ermine robe of State, kneels the Dauphin, the heir to the throne of France. An archbishop, wearing his mitre and the splendid robe of his high office, places the crown upon the prince's head, and anoints him with sacred oil. The Dauphin is now king, and a great shout of joy echoes and re-echoes from the vaulted roof. And now all eyes turn to the striking figure by the side of the newly-made king. You see a noble maiden, clad in knightly armour, holding a drawn sword in one hand and a white banner in the other. She kneels at her prince's feet, and tears of joy fall from her eyes as she greets him " king " for the first time. " Now," she says, " is the will of God fulfilled."

Who is this maiden, and why does she hold such an honoured place amidst this gallant throng? Let me tell you. It is a long story—the story of France conquered and restored; the story of a hundred years of warfare between England and the nation which she is now proud to claim as her ally.

Let us go back to the days of William the Conqueror. He, you will remember, was Duke of Normandy as well as King of England, and his successors retained the dukedom. Henry II., the fourth English king after William, made himself master of one-third of France. Normandy he inherited from his mother and Anjou from his father. Nearly all the country from the Loire to the Pyrenees became his when he married Eleanor of Aquitaine, the divorced wife of the French king Louis VII., and through the marriage of his son he obtained control of Brittany. His French dominions quite outweighed England in his estimation. He only lived two continuous years in England during the whole of his reign.

Richard I., who followed him, spent most of his time in fighting Saladin and as a captive in a German prison. When he returned from captivity he discovered that his fellow Crusader, Philip Augustus of France, had treacherously robbed him of Normandy in his absence. He crossed the Channel, drove out Philip, erected a strong castle on a hill overlooking the Seine above Rouen, and spent his few remaining years in warring with France. Five years after his death, in the reign of the English King John, Philip conquered Normandy, Maine,

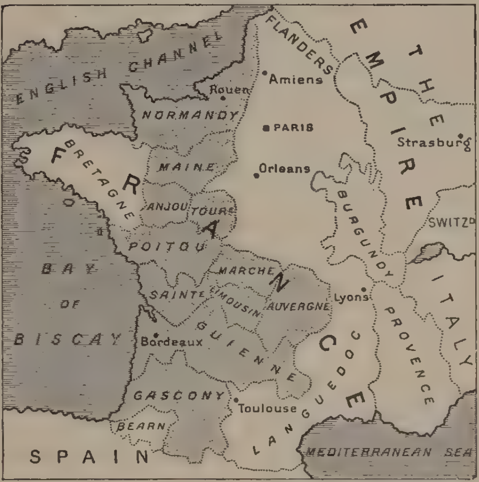
KING RICHARD AND THE YOUNG ARCHER.

(*From the fresco by John Cross in the Houses of Parliament.*)

At the siege of the castle of Chalus a young archer inflicted a mortal wound on Richard. When the castle was taken and the king was lying on his death-bed, the young archer was brought before him. His boldness so pleased Richard that he ordered the lad's release. When the king was dead his order was disregarded, and the archer was put to death.

Anjou, and Touraine; and thus stripped England of nearly all her French possessions, except the rich and fertile province of Gascony. It was a blessing in disguise. The Norman barons with estates in England had to choose whether they would be Frenchmen or Englishmen. Those great families which had estates on both sides of the Channel divided into two branches. One branch became French, and in the course of time the other branch became English.

In the reign of Philip's successor, Louis VIII., that incompetent King of England Henry III. made a half-hearted attempt to win back Normandy. The result was disastrous, and for the next one hundred and eight years the two countries were at peace. Then arose an English king, Edward III., who thirsted for military glory. When he came to the throne the French were in possession of certain frontier towns of Gascony, which they refused to give up. This was the chief cause of the long struggle known in history as the Hundred Years' War.



ENGLISH POSSESSIONS IN FRANCE.

Another important reason was that Philip of Valois, the French king, was trying to crush the people of Flanders, the country which made cloth out of English wool. The Flemings had rebelled against their count, and Philip had gone to his assistance. Edward knew that the prosperity of his kingdom depended upon the friendship of the great cloth-working towns of Flanders. Should these towns fall into the hands of France, England's wool trade would be in danger. Edward soon saw that war could not be avoided, so he boldly put forth a claim to the French throne.

On the death of Charles IV., nine years before, Edward had been one of the three candidates for the French throne. He had claimed the crown through his mother, Isabella, who was known as "the She-Wolf of France." She was the daughter of Philip IV. Philip's three sons had reigned, and had died leaving only daughters to succeed them. The real heir to the throne was Charles, the grandson of Philip's eldest son, and he, like Edward, claimed the crown through his mother. The French lawyers held that the law of France forbade a woman to wear the crown. Edward replied that though his mother had no claim she could pass it on to her son. The French lawyers had laughed at the idea, and had set both the claimants aside in favour of Philip of Valois, who, when Edward decided on war, had been reigning for ten years.

In the long struggle that was now about to begin, England had three great advantages over France: she had a better fleet, her archers were the best bowmen of the time, and her generals were more skilful. On land, Edward was unsuccessful at first; but at sea he was able to destroy the whole French fleet, and thus free England from danger of invasion. The English people were delighted at this victory, and forthwith dubbed Edward "King of the Sea." In the seventh year of the war he landed at La Hogue in Normandy, and on August 26, 1346, won the great battle of Crécy, with which every reader of English history is fully acquainted.

It was an archers' victory: the longbow proved to be altogether superior to the clumsy crossbow used by the Genoese in Philip's army. The English archers shot down the heavily-armed French knights, until they formed a ghastly barrier in front of them. Only here and there did the Frenchmen come to hand-strokes with the English men-at-arms. At nightfall the French survivors fled, leaving a quarter of their army dead or dying or prisoners. It was in this battle that the blind old King John of Bohemia fell. Edward, Prince of Wales, who had fought gallantly, received from his proud father the crest of three ostrich feathers and the motto "Ich dien" (I serve), which appeared on the shield of the fallen king.

Edward now pushed on to besiege Calais, which was little better than a nest of pirates who continually preyed on English shipping. Calais stands in a flat, marshy country, and in those days only three roads crossed the marsh to the city. Edward held these roads, and also blockaded Calais by sea. Outside the walls he built a wooden town, and there he sat for eight months starving Calais into submission. The townsfolk suffered terribly, and Philip tried to relieve the place, but in vain. In the year 1347 it surrendered. Calais was of the highest value to the English kings so long as the Hundred Years' War lasted, for it provided them with an open doorway into France. Its loss was a heavy blow to the French.

A truce followed, during which time the plague known as the " Black Death " raged through Europe. It appeared in the middle of China in or about the year 1333, and by August 1348 had visited Italy, France, England, and Germany. Next year it ravaged Sweden and Norway. It has been calculated that 25,000,000 Europeans were swept away either by this terrible plague or by the famine that followed in its fatal footsteps. Fifty thousand persons perished in Paris alone. In England the scarcity of labour which resulted gradually led to the complete breakdown of serfdom.

Warfare was resumed in 1355, and at Poitiers, between Tours and Bordeaux, Edward the Black Prince, Edward III.'s famous son, utterly overthrew a great French army, which was trying to cut him off from Bordeaux. In the fight King John, successor to Philip, was captured, and was treated by the Black Prince with the most knightly chivalry. Despite the capture of the French king the war continued until 1360, when peace was made. By this peace almost all the country from the Loire and its left-bank tributary the Vienne, southward to the Pyrenees, remained in English hands. Edward III. gave up his claim to the throne of France, as well as to Normandy, Touraine, Maine, and Anjou, and was promised 3,000,000 gold crowns as the ransom of the king.

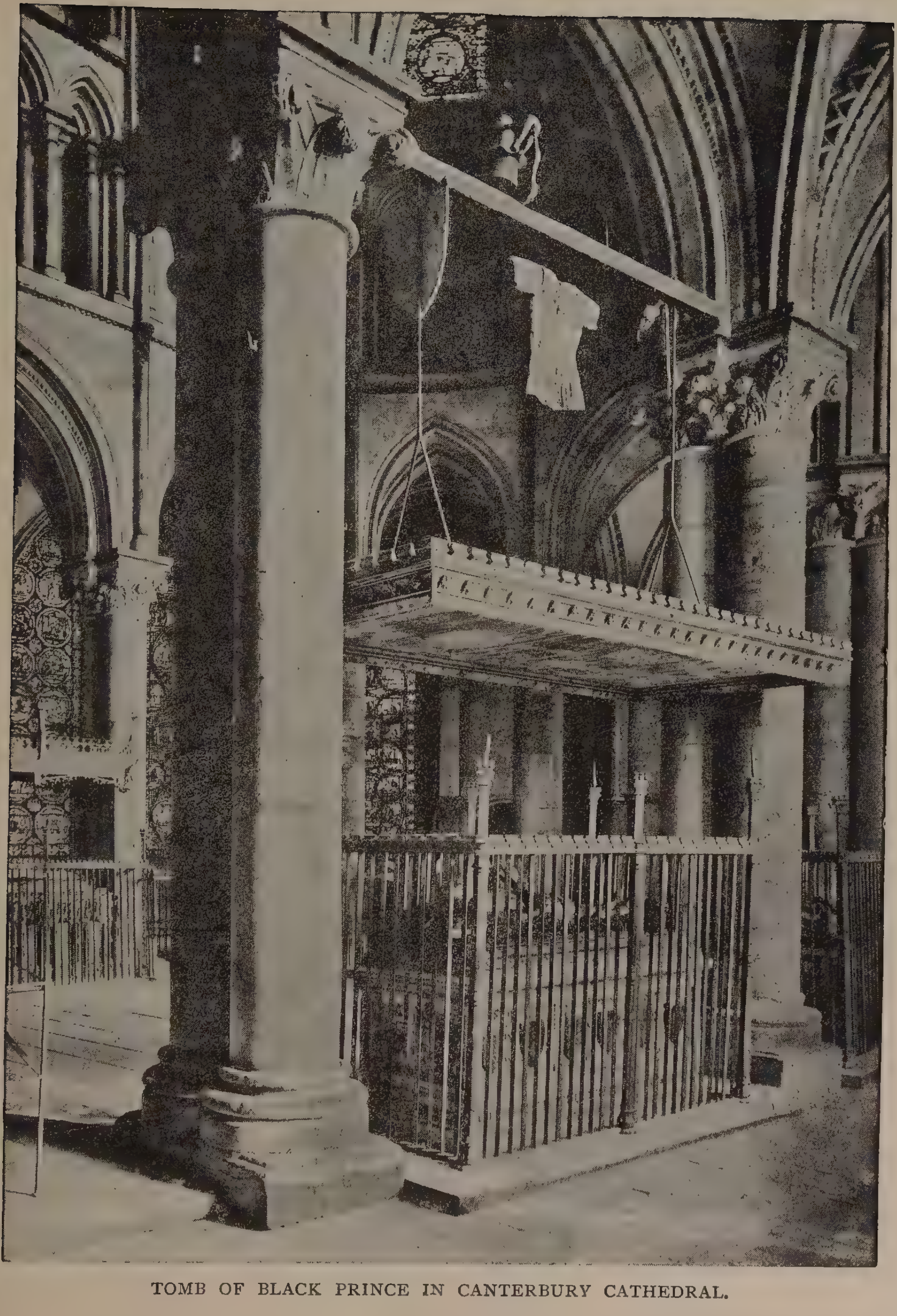
John's eldest son, the Dauphin Charles, ruled in his father's stead over a kingdom which was in the last stage of wretchedness and misery. Bands of " Free Lances " or " Free Companies "—discharged soldiers—roamed the country under

French or English leaders, and were no better than gangs of robbers. Harried and despoiled by these freebooters, and cruelly treated by the nobles, the peasantry rose in revolt, fired the castles of their lords, and perpetrated all sorts of barbarities upon them and their families. The town of Meaux, on the Marne, was besieged; but the rebels were put to flight by the opportune arrival of some English knights. The nobles, heartened by this success, united to crush their rebellious serfs, and in doing so were just as ruthless as the peasants had been. The *Jacquerie*, as this rising is called, lasted six weeks.

There were troubles in Paris, too, at this time. One Etienne Marcel stirred up the Parisians to demand relief from the crushing taxes and a share in the government. He bearded Charles in his own palace, slew two of his favourite ministers before his face, and allied himself with Charles the Bad of Navarre, whom he wished to place on the throne. Marcel, however, soon fell, and Charles the Bad abandoned his attempt on Paris, though at the head of the "Free Lances" he continued to ravage the country.

On the death of King John, Charles succeeded to the throne, and began to rule firmly and well. He was fortunate in possessing good generals, such as the famous Bertrand du Guesclin, a short, ugly man, but one of the most accomplished knights of his time. Five years after the peace referred to above, war broke out again, and in the course of it Du Guesclin was captured, but was ransomed. Charles then sent him with the Free Companies to fight in Spain against Pedro the Cruel. At first he was successful; but when Edward the Black Prince joined Pedro, the fortune of war turned against him. His forces were badly defeated, and he was again captured and once more ransomed. Shortly afterwards misfortunes befell the English. Their soldiers sickened, and Edward himself was attacked by a slow fever. Nevertheless, he carried on the war pitilessly.

Charles now sent the Black Prince a challenge, summoning him to Paris to defend himself against the complaints of his subjects in Aquitaine. The Black Prince replied that he would indeed come to Paris, but with a helmet on his head



TOMB OF BLACK PRINCE IN CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

and sixty thousand men at his back. He never did so, for after the death of Pedro the French held the upper hand, and one by one all the conquests of Edward III. were lost. The Black Prince died in 1376, and before his father lay in his grave the English dominions in France had dwindled to the ports of Bordeaux and Bayonne and the fortress of Calais.

Charles, who died in 1380, is said to have been poisoned by his relentless enemy Charles the Bad of Navarre. His son, Charles VI., was not twelve years of age when he succeeded to the throne. His four uncles—the Dukes of Anjou, Berry, Burgundy, and Bourbon, all bold and ambitious men —became his guardians. The most selfish and rapacious of them was the Duke of Anjou, who exacted such heavy taxes from the Parisians that they rose in rebellion. Soon afterwards he laid claim to the crown of Naples, and perished in trying to secure it. The surviving uncles terribly misgoverned the country, and tore it asunder with their rivalries. On the death of the Duke of Burgundy the Duke of Orleans held the chief power; but before long he was in fierce conflict with the new Duke of Burgundy, who caused the Duke of Orleans to be murdered. Out of that murder arose a war of factions, which split the country in twain and handed it over to an English conqueror.

This conqueror was the English king Henry V., a young, handsome soldier, who was very popular with his subjects. His kingdom had been much troubled in his father's time by plots and rebellions, and he saw that nothing would make England peaceful at home but war abroad. He therefore set up the old claim of Edward III., and demanded all the old French possessions of the English kings. Of course his demand was refused. Parliament gave him liberal grants of money, and he even pawned the crown jewels to provide the means of equipping his archers and men-at-arms. He set sail late in the summer of 1415, and landed at Harfleur. Seven weeks were occupied in capturing the town, and by the end of the siege his army was so reduced that he resolved to march along the coast to Calais and there wait for reinforcements.

The English were weary and footsore, wasted by disease and weakened by want of food. They crossed the Somme, only to find an army of Frenchmen, five times as great as their own, blocking the way to Calais. Next day, October 25, 1415, the famous battle of Agincourt was fought. It resulted in a worse defeat for France than that of Crécy or Poitiers. The English actually slew a greater number of Frenchmen than there were in the whole of their own ranks.

Many of the French considered the disaster a sign of divine anger. Even while the country was in dire peril the feuds of the nobles continued. The two chief factions were those of the Burgundians and the Armagnacs, the latter of whom were led by descendants of the House of Orleans. The Burgundians in the midst of the national confusion forced their way into Paris, and with the help of the mob slaughtered all the Armagnacs that they could lay hands on. Fiendish outrages were wrought on the dead bodies of the victims.

Meanwhile Henry had landed on the French coast a second time, and by the year 1419 was master of the whole of Normandy. The French nobles by their bitter quarrels had played into his hands, and next year King Charles, now a madman, was forced to make a treaty by which Henry was to marry his daughter Catherine, to be regent of France and his successor to the throne. The Dauphin, afterwards Charles VII., refused to be bound by this treaty, and continued the war. France at that time was in a terrible condition, and Paris was a city of horrors. Very many of the citizens had perished in the massacres, and now plague reappeared and carried off enormous numbers of victims. The graveyards became full to overflowing, and huge trenches were dug to receive the dead, whose bodies were so thinly covered with earth that wolves entered the city at night and preyed on the corpses. Robbers haunted the streets, and the wretched survivors suffered terribly from famine.

Henry was master of France for little more than two years. Both he and Charles died in the year 1422, and Henry VI. of England, then a baby of less than a year old, was proclaimed King of France. The baby-king's uncle, John of Bedford, became regent, and continued the war. He was an able soldier and a wise man. For a time he held his own, and won several victories; then the tide began to turn. A deliverer of France had arisen.

This deliverer was not the Dauphin, Charles VII., but the Maid Joan, who saluted him King at his coronation in the cathedral of Reims. In the year 1429 she was living in the village of Domrémy, in the east of France. When a child of thirteen she believed that an angel appeared to her and told her that God had chosen her to save her country. Voices and visions so wrought upon her that she went to the commander of a neighbouring town and managed to persuade him that she had a divine mission. She was provided with armour and a horse, and was brought into the presence of the Dauphin, who agreed to send her with a train of provisions to the city of Orleans, which was then besieged by the English, and was on the point of surrender.

Joan entered the city at the head of her train, and led the garrison in their assaults on the besiegers. The first attack was successful, and the soldiers and people of the city hailed her as a deliverer sent by God. When the city of Orleans was saved, Frenchmen everywhere took heart of grace. The English began to believe that she was really inspired, and soon they dreaded her. Everywhere they were driven back, and three months later Charles was crowned at Reims, as described at the opening of this lesson.

In the spring of the next year Joan's powers began to fail. She was captured by the Burgundians, who were fighting on the English side, and was held to ransom. But no ransom was forthcoming, and a French bishop tried her for witchcraft. After a long and tedious trial, and after suffering every kind of insult and hardship, she was found guilty, and was tricked into signing a paper confessing her guilt. The miserable French king, whom she had seated on the throne, did not lift a little finger to save her.

On May 30, 1431, they led her into the market-place at Rouen, and burned her alive. The old legends tell us that, as the flames leaped round her and her spirit departed, a pure white dove, the harbinger of peace, rose from the smouldering pile and winged its way towards heaven. In very truth, peace did spring from her ashes. Her heroic example gave new life to the crushed spirit of her countrymen, who rose and drove the invader from their shores. Four years later nothing was left of all the English conquests in France but the town of Calais.

Joan was despised and rejected by those whom she had freed from the foreign yoke, but in time Frenchmen came to look upon her as their guardian saint. She was canonized by the Pope in the year 1907; and during the Great War, men, seeing her statue uninjured before the cathedral of Reims while the sacred pile lay in ruins, took courage from the omen, and believed that her arm was still strong to save France.

*Read:* Sir A. Conan Doyle's *The White Company* (Nelson), or Dean Stanley's *The Black Prince* (Nelson).

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## 23. THE RISE AND FALL OF VENICE.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns: John** (1199)
**to Henry VII.** (1485).]

LET me recall to your minds the story of the Fourth Crusade, which led to the conquest of Constantinople. You will remember that the Crusaders had to reward the Venetians with a share of their spoils for lending them ships to transport them to the East. From this you gather that Venice was then rich and powerful. Though in the time of the barbarian inroads, when the old Roman Empire broke up, Italy had been devastated again and again, and though Goths and Lombards had established kingdoms in that country, certain of the cities, in which Roman civilization had been most strongly founded, remained centres of learning and activity. The chief of them were Florence, Genoa, Verona, Padua, and Milan. Their names have remained almost unchanged from Roman times, and the main features of their city life have not yet wholly passed away. Venice, however, was a comparatively modern city.

ON THE PIAZZA OF ST. MARK, VENICE.

(*From the picture by W. Logsdail in the Birmingham Art Gallery.*)

When the Lombards in 568 sacked the town of Aquileia, near the head of the Adriatic, the people fled, as they had done in the time of Attila, to a desolate group of islands off the coast. These islands were composed partly of sand, partly of mud brought down by the rivers. The channels between them were swept by the incoming tide and by the outgoing streams. The refugees from Venetia, as the mainland was called, saw that these islands would afford them a secure place of refuge. They settled on the islands, and built houses of wood and churches of stone, which they ferried over the lagoon from the mainland. In their island homes they developed into fisher folk and sailors, because they could not be anything else. Sometimes they were pirates, and they fought against other pirates, who had their lairs in the many hidden channels and creeks which you see on the map, behind the islands fringing the east side of the Adriatic Sea.

Gradually the little settlements grew, and at length they were united under the government of a duke or, as the Venetians called him, a Doge. They were able to build up their government without much interference, because they were protected by the sea. Pepin, king of the Franks and son of Charlemagne, tried to overcome them in the year 809; but so many of his soldiers were smothered in the mud of the lagoons or died of fever in the swamps, that he gave up the attempt. It was at this time that the settlers drew together to the *Rialto*, or high bank, which became the centre of their new city, now called Venice. The city at first was supposed to be under the rule of the Greek emperors, but Constantinople was so far away that the Venetians did very much as they liked.

In the year 1177, when, as you will remember, the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa quarrelled with Pope Alexander III., the Venetians took the side of the Pope. Frederick's son Otto gathered a fleet from the cities of Genoa, Ancona, and Pisa; but the Venetians beat them off, and took Otto prisoner. Then Frederick had to submit himself to the Pope. As a reward, Alexander promised the Venetians that the sea should thenceforth be subject to them, "as a bride to her husband." In this figure of speech lay the truth that Venice, like Britain, was dependent for her security upon the sea. To remind the citizens of this fact the Doge in splendid state sailed out once a year, and from the prow of a magnificent galley called the *Bucentaur* dropped a ring into the Adriatic Sea, which was thus supposed to become the bride of Venice.

The Venetians carried off from Alexandria the bones of St. Mark, whom they regarded as their patron saint; and in his honour they built the magnificent cathedral, which is one of the glories of their city. The emblem of Venice is the winged lion of St. Mark, which typifies courage and speed. An Austrian ambassador once inquired in what country winged lions were found. "In the same country," was the reply, "in which you find the double-headed eagle."

Many poets and painters have made us familiar with the striking features of the city—the Rialto, where the merchants met; the Doge's Palace; the lofty Campanile, or bell tower, which collapsed in 1902 and was afterwards rebuilt; and the gondolas, which still ply along the water-streets.

Venice, as we have seen, made a rich bargain with the Crusaders. She had long been trading with Constantinople and with Syria and Egypt, even when those countries were held by Saracens; for the Venetians did not care with whom they did business so long as they made money. After 1204 they obtained a firm footing in Constantinople, and also in various parts of Greece, the Ægean Islands, and even in the Crimea. Thus they controlled the trade which came from Persia across the Armenian passes to the Black Sea, that which was brought by caravans to the Syrian ports, and also the traffic of the Red Sea.

From Venice goods were carried on horses, by way of the Brenner Pass, across the Alps, and thence were floated on barges down the Neckar and the Rhine to the Low Countries and to England. The route from Venetia went through the Trent Valley or Trentino district, to which Italy has always laid claim, and in which some hard fighting with the Austrians took place during the Great War. Fleets of Venetian galleys also carried the spices and silks of the East to all parts of the Mediterranean. Some of the galleys, braving the Bay of Biscay, found their way to English harbours, though, as a rule, they were not suited for ocean navigation.

In the days of her greatness Venice was thus the chief distributing centre of the world's trade. On the Rialto the merchants of all nations met; and so banking, money-changing, and money-lending came to be a great business, as you know from Shakespeare's play. There were manufactures of fine glass, salt, and books; but the chief trade was in Eastern luxuries, the most important of which were spices and sugar. In the Middle Ages sugar was a costly rarity in Europe. The art of making loaf sugar was invented in Venice, and the finest confectionery was made there.

The government of Venice was exceedingly jealous lest strangers should learn any of its trade secrets. All the craftsmen of the city were strictly registered in guilds or unions; even the great artists Titian and Veronese were members of the guild of painters and varnishers. Foreigners were not permitted to settle in the Venetian colonies, though they were welcomed in the city itself.

You will easily understand that other nations grew jealous of Venice. Her chief rival was the trading city of Genoa, on the other side of Italy. Genoa was, like Venice, a commercial republic, directed by wealthy merchants. She also had settlements in the East, and to her belonged, down to the year 1768, the island of Corsica. Venice and Genoa fought some bitter wars for supremacy. In 1379 the Genoese sent out a great fleet and army to besiege Venice. Some of the best Venetian sailors were away in the East at the time, and the capital was in terrible straits until, after many months, they returned. Then the Genoese in turn were besieged in their camp at Chiozza, and had to surrender (1380). This defeat was fatal to Genoa.

While we admire Venice for her enterprise, her services to commerce, and her art, we cannot praise her methods of government. The Doge in time became a mere figurehead; the common people had little say in public affairs; everything was managed by the rich commercial families, who were also nobles. Various small committees wielded the power of the State, the most famous being the *Council of Ten*, which ruled with craft and secrecy. If a citizen seemed to be dangerous or troublesome, he was swiftly tried, and either executed or consigned to a dungeon. Venice was not only a rich but, in its later days, a wicked city; and her *bravoes*, or hired assassins, were notorious. She was distrusted by the other Christian Powers, because, to save her trade, she was willing to come to terms with the Moslems in the Mediterranean regions, and even with the dreaded Turks. After the Turks had taken Constantinople, in 1453, as we shall read in a later lesson, the Venetians kept a regular ambassador at the Sultan's court. None of the Christian Powers was really grieved when, at the end of the fifteenth century, the discovery of the ocean routes to India and America left Venice stranded, as it were, in a backwater amidst the recesses of the Adriatic.

*Read:* "The Merchant of Venice," from Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare* (Nelson).

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## 24. THE ITALIAN CITY REPUBLICS.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns: Edward I.** (1272) **to Henry VII.** (1485).]

In marked contrast with Venice was the beautiful city of Florence, which was equally a home of art, but at the same time a home of freedom. The great business of Florence was the finishing and dyeing of cloth. This cloth was usually made of English wool; it was woven in Flanders, and was then brought to Florence to be dressed, dyed, and cut. The teaching of these arts was in the hands of an order of friars called the *Umiliati*, over the entrance to whose monastery was carved the emblem of a woolpack fastened crosswise by ropes. In the middle of the fourteenth century Florence had over two hundred wool factories, and every piece of cloth that left the city was carefully examined, in order to detect the slightest flaw in quality, colour, or size. Other important industries in Florence were the manufacture of silks and gold and silver brocades.

Because they had trade relations all over Europe, the Florentines became notable bankers, whose special business was to settle accounts between the merchants of various countries. To them has been ascribed the origin of letters of credit. Every time we change a *florin* we recall the standard coin of the famous city. When we talk about *Lombard Street* in London, we recall the settlement in London of business men from North Italy. In our commercial classes we learn bookkeeping by the *Italian* method. When we say that a merchant has become *bankrupt*, we are again recalling an Italian business term; for the word originally meant the breaking of a money-changer's stall, or *banco*, when he could not pay what he owed.

In the thirteenth century Florence was governed by representatives of the various arts and crafts. In 1343 the city rose against a foreign duke who had made himself its tyrant, and he had to flee for his life. The Florentines were devoted to freedom, and at a later period the motto on their city banner was "Liberty." While Venetian policy was often very selfish, Florence was always ready to risk its fortunes for the sake of Italian progress and freedom.

The whole of the peninsula between the latter half of the thirteenth century and the close of the fifteenth century was disturbed and divided by those quarrels between the emperors and the popes of which you have already read. Men and cities belonged to one or other of two factions, called Guelfs and Ghibellines. In Italy the Guelf party was, broadly speaking, that of the common people; it was Italian or nationalist, and it looked to the Pope for support. The Ghibelline party was aristocratic, pro-German, and imperialist, in that it looked to the emperor as its head.

You must remember that, when the Frankish Power in the age of Charlemagne became master of Northern Italy, the Frank or German nobles were given grants of land. They then built strong castles from which they could oppress the people. A Florentine wrote in 1250: "These haughty men, exulting in their descent from the princes of Germany, consider us to be churls and peasants, as though we were of a different clay from their own." The townspeople hated these

GENERAL VIEW OF FLORENCE.

alien lords, and were often engaged in little wars with the object of destroying their strongholds. Some of the more prudent nobles then migrated to the cities and made common cause with the citizens.

Out of disputes about political power there grew up in Florence two parties, called the Blacks and the Whites. Dante, the greatest poet whom Italy has produced, belonged to the White party. He was a fine classical scholar, and his chief desire was to see the Holy Roman Empire become the grandest of human institutions, and unite the whole world under its sway. So jealous was he for the overlordship of the empire that he actually called upon the emperor to punish his own city of Florence for its too great independence. He was banished from Florence in 1302.

Italy in the Middle Ages, with its many independent cities, recalls what we have read about ancient Greece. The *despots*, or *tyrants*, of the Greek cities had their counterpart in Italy. In Florence the house of the Medici became all-powerful. The Medici were originally a great business firm, with branches all over Europe. They were created princes, and were allied with some of the oldest royal families, notably that of France. The most famous members of the family were Cosimo de Medici and Lorenzo "the Magnificent."

Cosimo, while he was supposed to be nothing more than a private person, guided and directed all the affairs of the city. His power was based on the skilful use of money, by which he influenced not only individuals and parties at home, but the policy of foreign Powers. Lorenzo's sumptuous palace was the resort of poets, artists, and scholars. No despots were ever so generous in their patronage of the arts as the Medici. Nevertheless the old hatred of one-man rule still survived, and after the death of Lorenzo (1492) his son Piero was soon driven out. The old cry of *Popolo e Libertà* ("The People and Liberty") was heard again.

A monk named Savonarola had fired all hearers by his crusade against luxury and tyranny. He so worked upon the people that they set up a republic which took the Bible as its law. At a carnival season the people made a great bonfire, and threw into it everything that he had taught them to consider false and wicked books of poetry and plays, jewellery, rich clothes, false hair, and high-heeled shoes. Savonarola, however, was condemned for heresy, and after he had been burned at the stake the republic collapsed. Violent death had also been the fate of Rienzi, "the last of the tribunes," who drove the nobles out of Rome in 1354.

Despite the strong and active life of its cities, Italy in those days, and indeed right down to the nineteenth century, had no political unity. It was only "a geographical expression." It was kept in continual turmoil by its internal feuds, stirred up from outside by the German emperors and the kings of France and Spain. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries wars were waged mainly by means of *condottieri*, or hired soldiers. These were bands of heavily armoured cavalry, usually foreigners, who fought for pay and plunder. Some of the *condottieri* chiefs rose to be princes in Italy; notably Francesco Sforza, who in 1450 became Duke of Milan.

Out of all this confusion arose the view that life was an adventure; that all the world was heartless, treacherous, and cruel; and that it was better to betray than to be betrayed. This spirit found expression in the writings of Macchiavelli, a degenerate son of Florence, who regarded statecraft as a game of cunning, craft, and guile. Only the common language of Italy, and vague memories of the glories of old Rome, kept alive some idea of brotherhood through those dark ages.

*Read:* Lord Lytton's *Rienzi* (Book VIII., Chapter I.).

# 25. THE TURKS IN EUROPE.

**[Contemporary English Sovereigns: Edward I.** (1272) **to Henry VI.** (1422).]

In our lesson on the Crusades I told you that in the eleventh century a conqueror named Alp-Arslan, leader of the Seljuk Turks, defeated the Byzantine emperor and made himself master of most of Asia Minor. The kingdom which he set up was overthrown in 1300 by the Ottoman Turks, so called from their early leader Othman, who established an empire on its ruins. From him sprang a line of rulers whose power has lasted to our own day. After the death of Othman, his successor fixed the capital at Brusa, which is only a little more than sixty miles, as the aeroplane flies, from Constantinople. Knowing the warlike character of these Turks, you may be sure that ere long they attempted conquests in the neighbouring portions of Europe.

The Greek emperors then seated at Constantinople had lost all their power. They were so weak that they were ready to collapse at the first grasp of a strong hand. The Turks, on the other hand, were growing more powerful every year. In their raids they seized Christian children, the strongest and bravest of whom were brought up as soldiers, and were known as janissaries, or "new soldiers." In the reign of Bajazet, who was surnamed the Thunderbolt, these janissaries were a formidable force. They were soon to become the terror of Europe.

Bajazet was a fierce and haughty warrior, bent on European conquest. His predecessor, Amurath, had already seized Adrianople, and had swept into Macedonia and Serbia. In the latter country he had inflicted a terrible defeat on a combination of Slavs at Kossovo—a defeat which is remembered by the Serbians to this day, and forms the subject of many of their legends and songs. With Adrianople as his base, Bajazet, in the fourteen years of his reign, moved rapidly to and fro with a devastating army. He reduced the Serbians and Bulgarians to slavery, and passed beyond the Danube into the

A SORTIE. HUNGARIANS DRIVING BACK THE TURKS IN 1566.

(*After the print by Peter Krafft.*)

heart of Moldavia. Most of Greece fell to him, and by the year 1400 the Greek Empire was reduced to the city to which Constantine had given his name, a small part of Greece, and a few outlying fragments of Asia Minor.

In 1402 Bajazet began the siege of Constantinople, but was forced to call off his troops by the appearance in Asia Minor of a horde of Tartars from Central Asia. They were led by the famous Timour or Tamerlane. Timour utterly defeated Bajazet at the battle of Angora, and carried him about in a cage. He never crossed into Europe, and on his death, in 1403, his great dominion fell to pieces.

It was not until the reign of Mohammed II., who became Sultan in 1451, that the Turks again began their conquests in Europe. With a vast army, said to number 250,000, Mohammed besieged Constantinople, which, under its heroic emperor, Constantine XI., held out for several weeks. As often happened in later times, the divisions of the Christian Powers allowed the Turks to triumph. The Venetians and Genoese, whose ships might have helped the emperor, were jealous of each other. The lofty walls of Constantinople crumbled before a new weapon of war, for the Turks brought against them immense cannon. On May 29, 1453, they made their final assault, and the city was given over for three days to the horrors of pillage and bloodthirsty slaughter.

Forty thousand people perished during the sack of the city, and fifty thousand were reduced to slavery. The noble church of St. Sophia, which Justinian had rebuilt, became a mosque; and the head of the emperor, who had withstood the siege, was sent as a trophy to the cities of Asia Minor. Thus the Ottoman Empire became established in Europe, with Constantinople as its capital. Before the death of Mohammed, in 1481, there was no Greek state left, and the Turkish power was supreme from Cape Matapan to the Crimea.

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It is usually considered that the year 1500 marks the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern history. Before I begin the modern history of Europe, let us have clear ideas as to the political divisions of the Continent at the opening of the new period. *England* and *Wales* and *Ireland* were under the sway of one king, while *Scotland* was still ruled by a king of its own. Across the Channel France had been unified under an absolute king who ruled from the Channel to the Pyrenees. Along its eastern border, except in the south, it did not, however, extend much beyond the fifth degree of east longitude.

The *Netherlands*, which then occupied much the same territory as they do now, consisted of a number of counties ruled by feudal princes, several territories ruled by bishops, and the two duchies of Brabant and Limburg—all under the overlordship of Charles, King of Spain, Archduke of Austria, and King of Sicily. We shall soon hear of him as Charles V., Emperor of Germany, and the most powerful monarch of his time. To the west of these states was the county of *Flanders*, full of wealthy cloth-working cities, which had broken away from the kingdom of France, and had practically become independent. During the Hundred Years' War they had allied themselves with England.

*Spain*, which then occupied its present territory, had become unified in the fifteenth century by the marriage of the sovereigns of the two most powerful Christian kingdoms of the peninsula—Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile. In the year 1492 Granada, the last foothold of the Moors in Spain, was captured, and with it fell the Moslem power, which had lasted eight centuries. *Portugal* had already reached its present boundaries, had long since ousted the Moors, and was ruled by one king.

*Italy*, like Germany, was in a state of confusion, with no semblance of national unity. There were five leading states in the peninsula—the Duchy of Milan, the Republic of Venice, the Republic of Florence, the States of the Church, and the Kingdom of Naples, which included Sicily. During the fifteenth century, as you have learned, these states were constantly at war with each other. The Spaniards had acquired Sicily and Sardinia, and they were related to the ruling house of Naples. France, too, was interested in Naples, and had advanced a claim to its throne. Out of this rivalry grew a struggle which lasted fifty years, and ended in the complete victory of Spain.

The same rivalry obtained in the duchy of Milan, which was invaded and finally conquered by France in 1515. As Milan was a fief of the Holy Roman Empire, Charles V., when he was elected emperor, challenged the right of the French to hold it, and the rival claims led to war. Venice, though called a republic, was ruled by her merchant princes, and her power was due to her vast commerce, and to her many island possessions in the Eastern Mediterranean. Her glory, however, was departing, for the Turks were conquering her islands and destroying her trade. Another misfortune which was soon to befall her was the discovery of the Cape route to India. When she no longer stood on the highway to the East a fatal blow was struck at her prosperity. Nevertheless, the republic existed right down to 1797, when Napoleon put an end to it.

Florence, after the failure and death of Savonarola, was in 1512 reconquered by the Medici. Again they were cast out and again restored, and finally Florence and her territory became the duchy of Tuscany.

The States of the Church ran across the middle of the peninsula, and formed the kingdom of the Pope. They had, however, fallen into the hands of petty tyrants, who were removed by poison or assassination in the time of Pope Alexander VI. Pope Julius II., who followed him made the papal states the home of literature and art, and began the building of St. Peter's at Rome.

The Alpine duchy of *Savoy*, to the north-west of Italy, on the border of France, was independent at the beginning of the modern period, and as the centuries rolled by grew stronger and stronger, until it stood first among the states of Italy. The king who unified Italy in the nineteenth century belonged to the House of Savoy.

*Switzerland*, to the north-east of Savoy, was a confederation of cantons united for the defence of their independence. This they had won at Morgarten in 1315, when their peasants, armed with axes and pitchforks, overthrew the flower of Austrian chivalry. Again their independence was threatened, but again they triumphed at Sempach (1386)—a battle which is ever memorable by the sacrifice of Arnold of Winkelried, who "made way for liberty " by gathering to his breast as many spears as he could grasp, and thus breaching the enemy's ranks.

We now come to "*The Empire*," which at the beginning of the modern period consisted of what is now Austria and Germany up to and a little beyond the Oder. You already know that Germany had not attained unity, but consisted of the territories of numerous princes, margraves, counts, prince-bishops, and free cities—about three hundred of them in all; some large enough to form respectable kingdoms, others consisting only of a single town or village. The emperor was no more than a lay figure draped in the mantle of royalty. Unless he happened to hold lands of his own, he was the mere holder of a title of grandeur.

The seven electors, together with the lesser princes, the higher clergy, and the representatives of the free cities, formed the Diet, which made laws for the whole of the empire. Without the consent of the Diet the emperor was powerless. Maximilian, who died in 1519, tried hard to give the country a better system, but failed; though he managed to abolish the right of private warfare, and set up a special court which should settle the claims of contending princes. Maximilian was the grandfather of that Charles V. who became emperor in 1519, and was the greatest monarch of his time.

*Hungary* in 1437 lost its king, who belonged to the French family of Anjou, and for nearly one hundred years was given over to civil strife, which weakened it so gravely that it was an easy prey for the Turks. In 1526 they destroyed the Hungarian army at Mohacs, and for one hundred and fifty years held the greater part of the country. The remainder was in the hands of the Hapsburgs, and, though added to Austria, retained, as it still retains, a measure of independence.

North of Hungary lay the kingdom of *Poland*, inhabited by Slavs, who had been Germanized and Christianized by the efforts of several of the German emperors. At the close of the Middle Ages Poland extended from the Baltic Sea to Hungary and to the borders of the Turkish Empire. On the map it looked a great state, but it was full of weakness. Its nobles were all-powerful and its people were heavily oppressed.

Along the Baltic coast, between the Vistula and the

Niemen, lay the duchy of *Prussia*, which had been won from the Slavs by what was known as the "Order of Teutonic Knights," originally a company of monkish warriors organized for the succour of German pilgrims in the Holy Land. These knights by cruel warfare stamped out heathenism and made themselves masters of the country. The knights fell into poverty, and in 1466 were obliged to sell part of their territory to Poland, and acknowledge the Polish king as their overlord. But in 1618 the duchy was acquired by Brandenburg, and out of this union sprang the modern Kingdom of Prussia. The duchy is now known as the province of East Prussia, the most cherished part of the Prussian kingdom and the home of its oldest landed families. You will remember that the earliest battles of the Great War between Germany and Russia were fought out in East Prussia.

*Russia* was largely in the power of Mongol tribes, who had established themselves north of the Black Sea, and had forced the princes farther north to pay them tribute. They were still powerful at the close of the fifteenth century, when a prince named Ivan III. threw off their yoke, and took the title of Tsar (Cæsar) to indicate that he considered himself supreme sovereign. He it was who laid the foundations on which Russia arose in the following centuries.

Before I complete my tour of Europe as it was when modern history began, I must say something of the Scandinavian states of *Denmark*, *Sweden*, and *Norway*. By the Union of Kalmar, in 1397, a long period of confused strife in these countries was brought to an end, and they were all supposed to be on an equal footing under one king. Denmark, however, was the leading Power.

*Read:* Neale's *Fall of Constantinople* (Everyman Library).

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## 26. THE NEW BIRTH.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns**: **Henry VI.** (1422); **Edward IV.** (1461); **Edward V.** (1483); **Richard III.** (1483); **Henry VII.** (1485); **Henry VIII.** (1509).]

THE modern history of Europe was ushered in by a remarkable revival which led to vast changes in the thoughts, lives, and fortunes of mankind. We speak of it as the Renaissance, or New Birth, because it was the beginning of a new era in the world's history. Strange to say, this "new birth" was brought about by the influence of that Roman-Greek civilization which, after lying hidden for a thousand years, was re-discovered and restored to light and life.

It is hard to say exactly when this "new birth" arose, just as it is hard to tell the precise day on which springtime begins; but we may perhaps fix the year 1453 as the date when it was actually in being. You will remember that in the year 1453 the Turks captured Constantinople. The Greek scholars then living in the city had carefully cherished the old learning of Athens in her prime. When the Turk, with fire and slaughter, forced his way into their city, they fled for their lives to Italy. Many of them settled down in the city of Florence, and there began to teach their noble language and lecture on the great writers of ancient Greece. Italian scholars flocked to hear them, and soon the study of Greek became all the rage.

The study of Greek opened up to the scholars of Western Europe a new treasure-house of poetry, history, and philosophy. For the first time they were enabled to feed their minds on the great thoughts of great men couched in the most beautiful and most flexible language of olden times. Greek language and literature gave them a new interest in the sculpture and architecture of ancient Greece, and before long men were striving to imitate and equal the artistic achievements of Athens in the days of Pericles.

From one study they turned to another. They re-read the works of the Latin writers with a new interest and with a wider knowledge. Searches were made for old manuscripts, and the Bible in the original Hebrew was re-discovered and carefully examined. For many years past the studies of scholars had been limited to a few worn-out and barren subjects. Now they found a new world of knowledge awaiting them. Their minds were wonderfully stirred, and out of this ferment the civilized world as we know it to-day was born.

While all this was going on, Europeans discovered, to their amazement, that the world itself was a much vaster and more remarkable world than they had thought it to be. Portuguese mariners had coasted along the shores of Africa, rounded the Cape of Good Hope (1486), and made their way to the wondrous land of India. They returned with marvellous stories of new races of men, strange modes of life, and riches of silk and ivory, gold and pearls. Then Columbus crossed the unknown Atlantic (1492), and he and other daring voyagers revealed a new world waiting to be added to the old. The Cabots, setting sail from Bristol, had already threaded their way amongst the icebergs of Labrador, and had actually set foot on the shores of the New World. This sudden contact with new lands and new races roused men's minds, and filled them with a new and active curiosity. They were eager to learn. The men of that age had, as it were, awaked out of the sleep of centuries.

The "new learning," which first struck its roots in Italy, rapidly spread all over Western Europe. Italy provided the most favourable soil for the new growth. She was the motherland of Roman civilization; its monuments could be seen everywhere, and its traditions were still in the mouths of the people. Though the Latin tongue had changed greatly and was rapidly becoming Italian, it was still no stranger to the speech of Livy, Virgil, and Horace. When the Greek scholars settled down in Italy and taught the freedom, beauty, and joy of the old Greek world, the minds of Italian students were naturally turned towards the great days of ancient Rome. The scholars who came flocking to Italy from every Western country thus carried away with them not only the Greek language and the old Greek culture, but a new interest and a

COLUMBUS LANDING IN THE NEW WORLD.

(*From the picture by Puebla.*)

new appreciation of all that was best and enduring in Roman civilization.

When the passion for knowledge is once aroused it can never be confined within narrow bounds. You cannot shut up knowledge in water-tight compartments. All human knowledge is linked together, and men who strongly desire to learn are impelled to push their inquiries far and wide, until there is no sphere of life and activity which they do not investigate. Thus the " new learning," though it began in Greek books, did not stop there. It made men inquire into everything, and especially into the foundations of their religion, forms of government, and social life. They were no longer content to take things for granted ; they set their reason to work, and they were not satisfied with any law, custom, or rule of life which could not justify itself.

Now let us see how this new spirit of inquiry, which was a direct outcome of the " new learning," brought about marked changes in men's ideas about life and all its relations. In the Middle Ages men believed that God had ordained that the world should be governed by an emperor, whose deputies were kings, dukes, lords, and so forth. Because they considered that this form of government was divinely ordered, they did not call it in question. If it was the rule of God, that was enough for them ; they had no right to ask whether it was good or bad, or whether it could not be improved. They accepted it as they did the sunshine and the rain, the hailstorm and the earthquake.

When the leaven of the new ideas began to work, men began to discuss the forms of government under which they were living, and they soon came to the conclusion that such forms were not given to them in the thunders of Sinai, but were devices of men which they had a perfect right to change if they considered them unsuitable. In this way the study of what we call political science began. Some men of imagination busied themselves in fashioning an ideal country. Our own Sir Thomas More, for example, wrote a book which he called *Utopia* — that is, " Nowhere " — in which he pictured a country in which all things were as he would have them be.

It was a land in which all men strove for the welfare of each other; where all had to work for their living, and no one had to work too hard; where all were taught in the schools; where all lived in good houses, with plenty of light, air, comfort, and cleanliness; where the law was always just, the punishment fitted the crime, and every one had a chance to live a useful and honest life. Utopia was the very opposite to the England that More knew, and his book was one of the first attempts to show how things might be altered for the better.

Men also began to inquire how far it was right and proper that joy should enter into their lives. In the Middle Ages the world was not considered a place of enjoyment, but of hard penance for sin. The consequence was that men did not seek for joy in this world, but strove to deny themselves in such a manner that hereafter they would inherit all joy. The "new learning" led men to take the old Greek view of life, and begin to enjoy the good things of this world without a sense of sin. They began to paint pictures, to carve statues, to erect noble buildings, to enjoy the beauty of earth, sea, and sky, the songs of the birds, the colour, form, and scent of the flowers, and to satisfy in every way their sense of beauty.

In the Middle Ages men did not, as a rule, regard themselves as individuals with the power to order their own life and goings. The "new learning" directed the attention of scholars to the outstanding men of ancient days. They began to admire greatly these heroes, and to strive to make themselves striking and distinguished figures. The result was that men began to cultivate their own special gifts, in order that they might stand out amongst their fellows. Thus a sense of personal independence and responsibility began to arise.

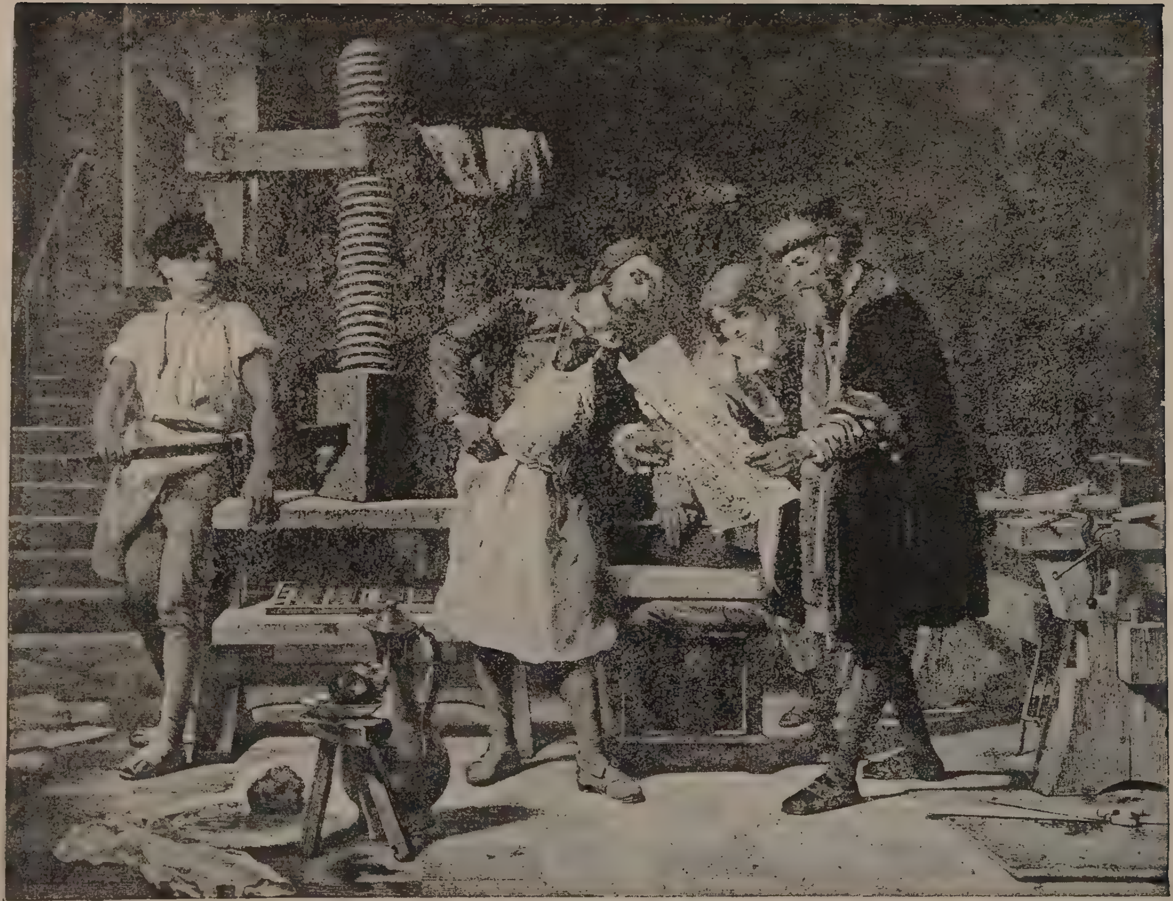
Hitherto the study of what we call science had not been encouraged. Men who tried to question nature and discover her secrets were thought to be in league with the powers of darkness. For example, Pope Sylvester II., who died in the year 1003, was said to have sold himself to the devil, because he was a man of great learning and had invented clocks. Roger Bacon, the great pioneer of science, who made several important discoveries in chemistry, improved the calendar, and invented the magnifying glass, spent many years of life in prison, and was always under suspicion. When Caxton, in the year 1476, introduced the art of printing into England, the ignorant mob would have smashed his presses to matchwood had he not secured the protection of the king. The "new birth" did much to dispel the old suspicion against those who strove to discover the laws of nature and harness them to the service of mankind.

By teaching, preaching, writing, and example, scholars throughout Western Europe prepared the way for a newer and freer and fuller life for all men. Their great ally was the printing press, which every year sent forth more and more books to open men's minds and show them the vast field which lay before them. Our modern literature, science, and art all took their rise from the "new learning" which the Greek scholars, driven out of Constantinople, carried to Italy.

When you consider the changes brought about by the "new birth," you will not be surprised to learn that the beliefs and practices of the Church were soon brought into question. I shall tell you in the next chapter how the spirit of free inquiry fostered by the Renaissance led to that great cleavage in the Church known as the Reformation. At the close of the Middle Ages the Pope, you will remember, claimed to be the overruling king of all earthly kings. Emperors had strongly resisted this claim, but had been forced to yield after long and bitter struggles. You may be sure, however, that the question was not settled, and that men imbued with the new ideas would not be content to leave the popes in this position.

At this time the Pope was not only the spiritual head of the whole Church, but an earthly sovereign as well. What were known as the Papal States were directly governed by him. He kept up a standing army, made war upon his foes, and played a large part in the politics of Europe. Many pious souls complained that the Vicar of Christ was so greatly concerned with worldly affairs as to be forced to neglect the spiritual duties of his great office.

There were other causes of complaint on this score. The



GUTENBERG AND HIS PRESS.

(*From the picture by E. Hillemacher.*)

John Gutenberg (1397–1468), a native of Mainz in Germany, was the first man to use separate types of metal for the popes of Renaissance times made Rome the great centre of art and learning. They surrounded themselves with artists and literary men, and made the city glorious with paintings, statues, and noble churches. To carry out these works, to maintain their great state, and to pay the expenses of governing their territories, they needed large sums of money. The Christian nations were called upon to contribute to the upkeep of the Papacy, and in some cases the burdens were very heavy. In Germany, France, and England men objected to such taxation, and asked why they should be obliged to pay for the support of the Pope and for the beautifying of Rome. At the end of the fifteenth century there was much discontent with the Papacy, and it was clear that before long this discontent would break out into active opposition.

*Read:* Charles Reade's *The Cloister and the Hearth* (Nelson).

## 27. THE REFORMATION.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns: Henry VIII.** (1509); **Edward VI.** (1547); **Mary** (1553); **Elizabeth** (1558).]

In Italy the Renaissance bore its best fruit in works of art and scholarship. Amongst the more serious and less artistic nations of the North it awakened a strong desire for reform in Church and State. Most of the Northern scholars who visited Italy for the purpose of acquiring the "new learning" were eager to make it the handmaid of religion and education. Such men as William Grocyn, Thomas Linacre, and John Colet, the Renaissance leaders in England, were but little touched by the artistic spirit of the new age. Colet, for example, did not spend his time in reading the great writers of ancient Greece, but devoted himself to the study of the New Testament in the original. He was not satisfied with many of the religious beliefs of his time, and was determined to take his rule of life only from the Scriptures.

Colet did not believe in the wonder-working power of relics, nor did he consider that pilgrimages could save a man's soul. Once when he visited the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury and saw the jewels, the costly carvings, and the rich metal-work with which it was overlaid, he said, "St. Thomas gave all to the poor in his lifetime, and I am sure he would prefer that they should possess all this wealth now heaped around him." He hoped and believed that the Church would be able to reform itself.

In Germany and Holland especially there were many men of like mind. One of the most famous of them was the scholar Erasmus, who longed to go to Italy to study, but lacked the means to do so. In one of his letters he wrote: "I have given up my whole soul to Greek learning, and as soon as I get any money I shall buy Greek books—and then I shall buy some clothes." Erasmus was as eager as Colet to encourage education, and he, too, desired to reform the Church from within. The labours of such scholars as Erasmus and Colet led to a wide extension of education, and for the first time there were many educated laymen who were able to compare the teaching of the Church with its practice. But though these men were dissatisfied with much that was being done in the name of religion, they were far from desiring to split the Church in twain in order to bring about reform.

In the next generation the reforming party was much bolder: it was ready not merely to plead, but to fight for a better state of things. The man who was the chief agent in bringing about the division of the Church was a German monk named Martin Luther. He was born in Saxony in the year 1483, and at the age of twenty-one joined the Augustinian friars. After a visit to Rome and much study of the works of St. Augustine, he came to the conclusion that salvation depended not on such outward observances as masses and pilgrimages, but on a deep and earnest faith. He was a professor in the university of Wittenberg when a friar visited the town, selling what were known as letters of indulgence, promising those who were contrite freedom from Church punishment on payment of certain sums of money. Thereupon Luther wrote a number of tracts containing ninety-five arguments against indulgences. Copies of these tracts were sold and read everywhere. Soon Luther grew bolder and more outspoken, and attacked several of the chief doctrines of the Church. Three years after he had nailed his tracts to the door of the church at Wittenberg, Pope Leo X., who had striven to smooth over the difficulty, published a bull of excommunication against him. Luther and his friends publicly burnt this document in the market-place.

Meanwhile the teachings of Luther and his friends were spreading rapidly not only in Germany, Switzerland, and France, but also in England and Scotland. Charles V., who had been elected emperor in 1519, summoned Luther to Worms, on the Rhine, in order that he might inquire into his doctrines. Luther was promised a safe-conduct, but his friends reminded him of the fate of Huss at Constance, and besought him not to trust the emperor. Luther replied, "I would go even if there were as many devils as there are tiles on the house roofs."

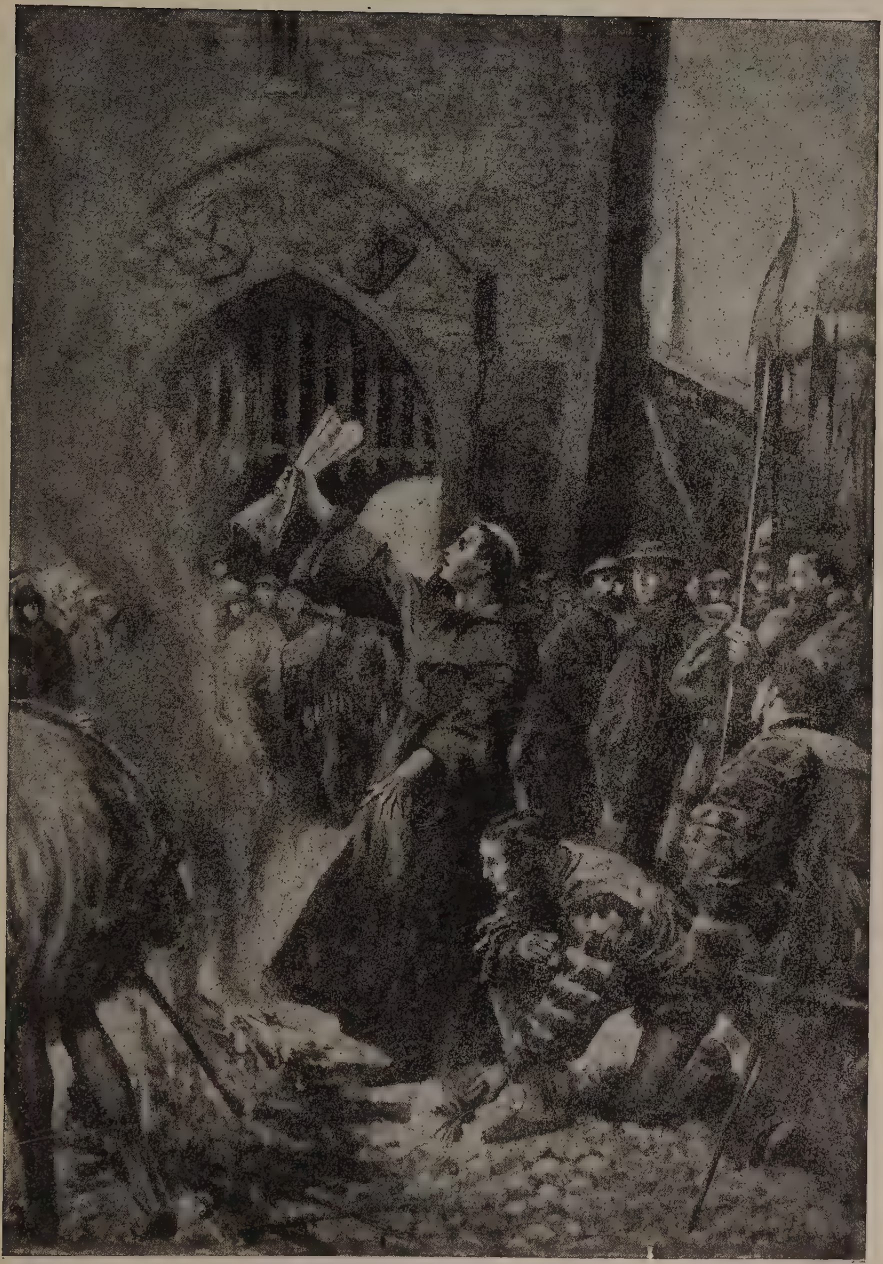
On April 17, 1521, Luther faced a great concourse of nobles and bishops. He defended himself with ability; but the emperor was ready to condemn him, and would have done so had not his friend the Elector of Saxony carried him off secretly to the Wartburg Castle. In the next month the emperor published an edict making Luther an outlaw, and declaring his life forfeit. Then he set out for Italy, to begin a war against France for the possession of Milan. In his absence his sentence was not carried out, and meanwhile Luther's doctrines were adopted by almost all Germany. The Protestants were first so called because they *protested* against the carrying out of the Edict of Worms.

In the same year King Henry VIII. of England entered the lists against Luther. He was a good scholar, and was proud of his learning. He now ventured to reply to Luther in a book upholding the teachings of the Church and the authority of the Pope. Luther replied in scathing terms, calling Henry "this royal driveller of lies and passion," "this conscience-haunted tyrant," and so forth. "He trembles in his skin," said Luther, "lest the blood he has shed be demanded at his hands, and this it is which makes him clutch hold of the Pope to keep him on his throne, and pay court, now to the emperor, now to the King of France." Nevertheless, the Pope gave the English king the title which all his successors have borne—Defender of the Faith. Little did the Pope think that Henry was soon to be one of his bitterest foes.

While Luther was in concealment at Wartburg Castle many wild agitators engaged in the Reformation movement, and began to stir up the people to acts of violence. Luther had no sympathy with these men, for he wished the movement to proceed moderately and quietly. He therefore left his retreat and drove the extremists out of Saxony. In the following year there was a great rising of peasants in the Black Forest, and soon both Southern and Central Germany were in a blaze. The peasants were very discontented with their lot, but they probably would not have risen in revolt had not men gone amongst them preaching the equality of all men in the sight of God. Before long they attacked monasteries and castles, butchered their lords, and committed great atrocities. Luther urged the princes of Germany to crush these "murderous and plundering" people. A savage revenge was taken, and their last state was much worse than the first. Luther has been much blamed for hounding on the princes against the peasants.

The Reformation movement by this time had taken great hold of Germany. It had also extended to Switzerland, and shortly afterwards Luther's teachings were adopted by Frederick I. of Denmark and Gustavus Vasa of Sweden. Its progress, however, was threatened by the success of the Emperor Charles V. in his war with France. Charles was striving to possess himself of Milan and the French duchy of Burgundy. Most of the fighting took place in North Italy, where, in 1525, at the great battle of Pavia, Charles routed the French army and captured the French king, Francis I. To secure his release, Francis agreed to surrender not only Milan and Burgundy, but his overlordship of Artois, in North France, and Flanders, in the Netherlands.

Charles, who was a faithful son of the Church, had now



LUTHER BURNING THE PAPAL BULL.

leisure to attend to affairs in Germany. He summoned a great assembly of princes, both Lutheran and Roman, at Augsburg, and called upon the Lutherans to present their case. They did so, and in what is known as the Confession of Augsburg set forth the doctrines which have ever since remained the creed of the Lutheran Church. Charles decided against them, and gave them five months to return to the fold. A league of Protestant princes was formed, and civil war would have broken out had not Charles been obliged to march against the Turks, who were then advancing along the Danube towards Vienna.

The emperor needed the help of all the German princes to drive back the invader; he therefore made peace with the Lutherans, who agreed to support him against the Turks. A large force was gathered together, and when the enemy saw what strength was arrayed against him, he retreated without doing much harm. When this danger was past there were others to claim Charles's attention, and not until 1546, when Luther was in his grave, was he able to give all his energies to the task of restoring Germany to the arms of the Church. The Pope called together a great Council at Trent, before which Protestants were to plead their cause. When, however, they learned that the decision of the Council would be binding on them they withdrew. Then Charles managed to win over some of the Protestant princes, and to persuade others to be neutral in the coming struggle. In 1547 war began.

Only one serious battle was fought, and in it the leading Protestant prince, the Elector of Saxony, was captured. The war seemed to be over, and in the following year Charles published an arrangement, known as the "Interim," which was to give the country religious peace until the Council of Trent could finish its work. This "Interim" aroused such opposition, and the presence of Charles's Spanish soldiers proved so distasteful, that all Germany rose in revolt. The emperor fled and gave up the struggle. His successor, Ferdinand, finally made a peace (the Peace of Augsburg) by which every state or imperial city of Germany was free to accept or reject the

Lutheran faith. While Northern Germany adhered to the "new worship," Southern and Central Germany remained in the Roman Catholic Church.

I need not tell you the story of the Reformation in England and Scotland, but I must say something of its progress in other European countries. You will remember that Denmark, Norway, and Sweden had been united under one king since 1397. Early in the sixteenth century Sweden raised the standard of revolt, and Gustavus Vasa, the leading spirit of the rebellion, drove out the Danes and was proclaimed king. Denmark and Norway still remained united under a Danish king. In the course of the Swedish struggle for independence all the Scandinavian countries adopted the Lutheran faith.

In Switzerland—which then, as now, consisted of many small independent cantons, leagued together for purposes of self-defence—a priest named Zwingli played the part of Luther and established the Reformed Church of Switzerland. Some of the cantons, however, adhered to the Roman Church, and civil war broke out. The Roman Catholic cantons were victorious, but in the end peace was concluded on much the same conditions as that of Augsburg. To this day Switzerland remains partly Protestant and partly Roman Catholic.

Geneva had declared for Zwingli, and under the influence of John Calvin, a Frenchman of great learning, became the centre of that form of Protestantism known as Calvinism. Geneva adopted the teachings of Calvin with enthusiasm, and the city became a place of refuge for the persecuted Protestants of France, England, Scotland, and the Netherlands. Calvin set up the Presbyterian form of church government which still obtains in Scotland. Ireland, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Poland continued faithful to the Roman Catholic Church; and though the contest was for a time undecided in France, that country in the end remained almost wholly in the same communion. We shall hear something of the French Protestants, or *Huguenots*, in a later chapter. Generally speaking, we may say that the Teutonic nations accepted the "new worship," while the Romance and Slavonic peoples rejected it.

The Roman Catholic Church still remained very powerful, and towards the middle of the sixteenth century it adopted certain reforms of its own accord. What is known as the Counter-Reformation was brought about chiefly in the reign of Pope Paul IV. and his successors. The leading spirit of this Catholic revival was Ignatius Loyola, who founded the Order of Jesuits (or Society of Jesus) in 1541. His followers bound themselves together by vows of chastity and poverty, and devoted themselves to the care of the Church and the conversion of infidels. The members of this order became professors in colleges, preachers in cities and courts, tutors and spiritual guides in families, and missionaries among heathens and heretics. Every quarter of the globe witnessed their zeal: they were in the secrets of every court, and they utilized art, science, learning, and diplomacy in advancing the cause of the Church. They were so active, devoted, skilful, courageous, self-denying, and well disciplined, that the success of the Catholic revival was almost wholly due to them. They became very powerful in Italy, Portugal, Spain, and Catholic Germany, especially in Austria and Bavaria.

What is known as the *Holy Inquisition*, or the *Holy Office*, though it came into prominence during the Counter-Reformation, had existed in a mild form throughout the Middle Ages. It was established for the purpose of detecting and punishing heretics; and during the Counter-Reformation it was employed, with all its cruel adjuncts, against the followers of Luther and Calvin. Its activities were chiefly confined to Spain, Italy, and the Netherlands. It completely crushed Protestantism in the two former countries; but, as we shall see in a later chapter, it drove the people of the Netherlands into a revolt which established their political independence.

## 28. PHILIP OF SPAIN.

[**Contemporary English Sovereigns: Mary** (1553); **Elizabeth** (1558).]

For a period of eighty years during the sixteenth century Spain rose to be the foremost Power of Europe. The same century that saw her greatness saw also her decline. I have told you in a former lesson how Spain became unified under one crown by the marriage of Isabella, Queen of Castile, with Ferdinand, King of Aragon. In the previous lesson I gave you some account of Charles V., who was not only King of Spain and Emperor of Germany, but master of the Netherlands, Sicily, Naples, and vast possessions in the New World. In less than a century after Columbus landed on Watling Island, one of the Bahama Islands, the Spaniards had conquered America from California to Chile, and from the West Indies to the shores of the Pacific. These American possessions brought vast wealth to the rulers of Spain. In the time of Charles's son, Philip II., they are said to have yielded treasures of gold, silver, and jewels worth more than a million of our money every year.

Charles, as you know, was devoted to the Church. His great object in life was to stamp out heresy, and to restore Germany unbroken to the Papacy. In Spain he not only stamped out heresy by means of the Inquisition, but deprived the people of nearly all the rights of self-government which they had formerly enjoyed. He stood supreme on the ruins of Spanish liberty, and was the most powerful monarch on earth. Nevertheless he was a deeply disappointed man. His health gave way, and his failure to restore Germany to the arms of Mother Church broke his spirit. In 1556 he divided his vast dominions between his son Philip and his brother Ferdinand, and retired to a monastery, where he died two years later.

Philip was now master of Spain, ruler of the fairest and richest provinces of Italy, lord of the rich manufacturing country of Flanders, and owner of enormous tracts of territory beyond the Atlantic. His total annual revenue was said to be ten times as great as that of Elizabeth, Queen of England. His enemies described him, in his own day, as a monster of wickedness, who committed every crime in the calendar. He was, however, not so black as he was painted. His Spanish subjects admired him, and gave him full support throughout his reign. A cold, severe, narrow-minded man, he believed that God had set him over his peoples to be their shepherd and their sole judge of right and wrong. He was sincerely convinced that he was the only source of authority, under God, in the world.

Such being the character of the man, we may be sure that before long he would be in bitter conflict with those of his subjects in the Netherlands, or Low Countries, who had adopted the doctrines of the Reformation. You will remember that when Charles the Great divided up his dominions, Lothair received a strip of country lying west of the Rhine from Basel to the North Sea. The northern part of this territory, what is now known as Holland and Belgium, then consisted of a number of little states under princes and bishops and feudal lords. The country of Flanders became a great cloth-working country, and rich towns grew up which largely depended for their raw material on the wool of England.

During the Hundred Years' War these little states allied themselves with England, and in course of time became practically independent. In the closing years of the fourteenth century and the opening years of the fifteenth century they weakened themselves by making war upon each other, and the French dukes of Burgundy, by means of marriage and conquest, obtained possession of almost all of them. The Duchess Mary of Burgundy in 1477 married Maximilian of Austria, and thus the Netherlands came into the possession of the House of Hapsburg. Maximilian's son Philip became ruler of the Netherlands in 1494, and two years later he married a daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Their son was the Emperor Charles V., who, when he retired into a monastery, handed over the Netherlands to his son, Philip II., along with Spain, Milan, Naples, and the American possessions. I think you now understand how the Low Countries fell into the hands of Spain.

When Philip came to the throne Flanders was very prosperous. Antwerp was the richest town in North Europe, and Ghent the busiest cloth-working city of the world. The people of these and of other cities were strongly attached to liberty, and were always ready to resent oppression. The inhabitants of Holland were admirable seamen, and had rendered Charles V. great service in his expeditions against the pirates of Tunis and Algiers. Literature and the arts had made much progress, and architecture had flourished greatly. The cathedrals, town halls, and belfries of the Low Countries were famous all the world over. Some of them, such as the Cloth Hall at Ypres, were destroyed or wrecked by the Germans during their ravage of Belgium in the Great War. The University of Louvain, which they gave to the flames, was founded as far back as 1425. Such were the people and such was the country which Philip now proposed to reduce to the deadness of Spain.

The setting up of the Inquisition in the Low Countries gave rise to a great revolt. In 1565 the Flemish nobles formed a league, and called upon Philip to do away with what they described as an illegal and iniquitous tribunal. At the same time they swore to defend each other against any attack that might be made upon them. On April 5, 1566, three hundred of them marched to the palace of Margaret, Philip's half-sister, who acted as regent in his absence, and laid their grievances before her. It is said that a court official described them as "beggars," and this name they adopted.

The bold act of the "beggars" roused the country, and armed mobs destroyed many churches and their contents. Philip replied by sending the Duke of Alva, a man after his own heart, to punish the people. At the head of ten thousand veterans Alva began a merciless crusade. He boasted that during his six years' rule he had caused eighteen thousand Netherlanders to be executed.

In the midst of this reign of terror William the Silent, Prince of Orange,* stepped into the breach. He collected an army and invaded the Netherlands, but his forces were scattered by the Spaniards. William had hoped that the people would rise at his coming; but Alva had so terrorized them that they dared not revolt. Then, feeling quite secure, he proceeded to lay the last straw upon the patient camel's back. He levied a ten per cent. tax upon every purchase that was made, and by so doing gave the merchants a choice between ruin and armed resistance. They closed their shops and warehouses, and Flemish trade was almost destroyed.

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* Orange is a town in the department of Vaucluse, France, 18 miles north of Avignon. It was the capital of the tiny principality of Orange, which passed by marriage into the hands of the House of Nassau (1531). The first Nassau Prince of Orange was the father of William the Silent.

In the spring of 1572 Dutch freebooters, who styled themselves "Beggars of the Sea," suddenly made an attack upon the important seaport of Brill. After a little fighting Brill was captured, and was stubbornly held. This success had a wonderful effect. There were risings all over the country, and city after city hung the banner of Orange on its ramparts. Holland and Zealand almost immediately drove out the Spanish garrisons, and acknowledged William of Orange as their lawful Stadtholder or governor. Nor were Holland and Zealand alone in lighting the fires of freedom, for soon afterwards all the towns of Friesland recognized the authority of the prince.

Alva, however, was equal to the situation. While William was in Germany raising money and troops, he led his Spanish veterans against the revolting cities. Mechlin, or Malines as it is better known, Haarlem, and other places were recaptured, and horrible slaughter took place in their streets. The Dutch, however, resisted with desperate courage, and Alva, conscious that he was a failure, begged to be recalled. A successor was appointed to try milder measures; but the Dutch still continued to fight with all their old fearlessness and fierceness. Leyden was hemmed in, and the Spanish troops sat down outside its walls for hunger to do its deadly work. When, after five months, the besieged were on the point of starvation, the Dutch cut the dykes, and the sea was allowed to flow in up to the very gates of Leyden. Then the "Beggars of the Sea" sailed over the land and relieved the city. In memory of this siege the prince permitted Leyden to choose either a fair or a university. It chose the latter.

Philip by this time was bankrupt, and he had made but

PHILIP II. OF SPAIN.

(*From the painting by Alonzo Sachez Coelle in the Berlin Museum.*)

little progress in subduing the stubborn Dutch. In 1576 the governor-general died, and for a time the army was leaderless. The southern provinces, which had for the most part remained Roman Catholic, now rose in revolt. The Spanish soldiers began looting the cities, and at last carried by storm the city of Antwerp, which they sacked for three days. More than one thousand houses were burned, eight thousand citizens were slain, and enormous booty was carried off. For many generations the people of Antwerp recalled the "Spanish Fury" with horror and loathing. The awful excesses of the soldiers united the provinces, both north and south, and the day of Spanish domination seemed to be at an end.

Jealousies, however, sprang up, and north and south were parted, thanks mainly to the shrewdness of the Duke of Parma, who drew off the southern provinces by fair promises. This was a great blow to William the Silent, who now had to abandon the hope of leading the united Netherlands against Spain. The people of Holland and Zealand declared their independence, and made William their sovereign. The Netherlands were then divided into three portions. The Flemish provinces of the south had become reconciled to Philip; the middle provinces were under the sovereignty of the House of Anjou, but in name only; and the north was independent under William.

Philip knew that until William was out of the way he had no hope of breaking down the resistance of the Dutch. He tried in vain to bribe the Stadtholder to betray the cause of freedom, and finally put a price on his head. On July 10, 1584, as the prince was descending the stairs of his palace at Delft, a Burgundian fanatic fired three shots at him from a huge pistol, and he fell never to rise again. You may still see the weapon and two of the bullets in the Museum at The Hague.

The murder of William was a heavy blow to the Dutch. On the very day of the murder, the States, or Parliament, passed a resolution declaring that they would maintain the good cause, with God's help, to the uttermost, "without sparing gold or blood." They found a new champion in Maurice, the seventeen-year-old son of the murdered prince. He stepped into his father's shoes and continued the war with great ability and courage. The Spaniards, under the Duke of Parma, now began to win success after success. Antwerp was besieged and captured, and when it was abandoned by its merchants and industrious citizens it fell into decay.

Many English Protestants had fought as volunteers on the Dutch side ; but so far the English Government had given no direct aid to those who were making so determined a stand for freedom. English public opinion now demanded that assistance should be sent to Holland, and in 1585 English troops brought some relief. It was in this campaign that the peerless knight Sir Philip Sidney fell on the field of Zutphen.

The interference of England aroused Philip to the utmost fury, and he now determined to bring the island kingdom to its knees. For a brief space he had been King of England as the husband of Mary I., and had striven, with his wife's assistance, to stamp out Protestantism. On the death of Mary her sister Elizabeth, who had been brought up as a Protestant, had succeeded to the throne. She had refused Philip's hand in marriage, but she had remained at peace with Spain. Nevertheless, she had permitted certain of her subjects to commit acts of war against that country.

British privateers, such as Hawkins and Drake, had attacked Spanish settlements in America, and were in the habit of capturing Spanish galleons laden with treasure. Philip was constantly complaining of them, and Elizabeth was constantly protesting that she gave them no encouragement. Yet secretly she was hand in glove with the adventurers, the partner in their expeditions, and the sharer in their unlawful spoils. She was not displeased that her seamen should cut off and divert, partly to her own pocket, those stores of gold and silver which enabled Philip to make himself practically the master of Europe.

In September 1580 Drake returned from a voyage during which he had circumnavigated the world. Moreover, he had brought home the richest cargo of booty ever landed. With a single ship he had harried the hated Spaniards, plundered them of their ill-gotten gains, and had claimed for his land the right to penetrate all the seas of the world, in spite of Pope or king. Philip, angered and affronted, had already demanded the punishment of the man whom the Spaniards called "the master thief of the unknown world." Elizabeth had promised to hang Drake on his return; but now, while England was ringing with his fame, she discovered that Philip had been aiding rebels in Ireland, and declared that Drake's plunder of his ships was a fair reprisal, and no piracy at all.

The capture of the treasure ships was a serious matter to Philip. He saw clearly that unless England was crushed he could not retain his empire in the New World. His attempts to restore the Netherlands to the Pope had almost destroyed the commerce of the Low Countries. The two great sources of his wealth were likely to be dried up, unless he made a great effort to overwhelm his foe. By sending aid to his revolting subjects England had thrown off the mask. She was now his open enemy, and he was ready to stake everything on a great effort to make her bite the dust.

There is no need to tell British boys and girls the story of the "Invincible Armada." It came, it saw, it fled. "God blew with His wind, and it was scattered." When the pitiful remnant of Philip's proud fleet returned to Spanish waters, he was outwardly as calm as ever. He deeply grieved that he had "not been able to render God this great service." His failure settled the great religious struggle. The Dutch were not to be reconquered. The war still went on, but Spain had lost its old energy; its forces were engaged in struggles elsewhere, and its decline had begun. Twenty-one years after the defeat of the Armada a twelve years' truce was made with the Dutch. Not until 1648 was Spain sufficiently humbled and sufficiently poor to be ready to recognize their independence. The southern provinces, however, remained linked with her, and with her they sank into decay.

The later years of Philip's reign were marked by two triumphs on which I may dwell for a moment. Drake and his comrades were not the only "sea dogs" who sapped Philip's strength. Turkish pirates had become the terror of the Mediterranean, and from their lairs on the North African coast they made frequent plundering raids on the Spanish and Italian shores, and on the Venetian possessions. Venice was losing, one by one, her islands on the road to the East; and the Knights of St. John, the last descendants of the Crusaders, had been driven from Rhodes after a gallant defence, and were now at their last gasp in Malta.

In 1571 the Pope, Philip, and Venice formed an alliance for the purpose of crushing the Turks. Philip's half-brother, John of Austria, was appointed captain-general of a great fleet, mainly composed of Venetian and other Italian galleys, but carrying a strong body of Spanish troops. A battle was fought in the Gulf of Lepanto, in Greece. More than two hundred and fifty vessels were engaged on either side, and at the close of the day only about fifty Turkish ships had escaped destruction. The victory did not put an end to the pirates, but it checked the Moslem sea power so completely that it never fully recovered.

The second triumph of Philip's reign occurred when, in 1580, he forced Portugal to recognize him as king. The last native king had perished in battle against the Moors, and the only heir was an old cardinal. Philip had a claim to the throne through his mother, and he now pressed it. The Portuguese were very unwilling to join Spain, and the union was chiefly brought about by the influence of the Church and the bribing of nobles. Sixty years later Portugal rose, threw off the Spanish yoke, and became independent under the royal house of Braganza. Since that date Spain and Portugal have never been united.

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Within the life of an old man Spain rose to a great height of power and splendour, and sank into a decay from which she has never recovered. It is usual to ascribe her decline to the bigotry and unwisdom of her absolute kings, but the Spanish people must bear their share of the blame. They cut themselves off from new ideas; they refused to learn from their neighbours; they slaughtered or drove out the only industrious part of the population. Proud of their American conquests, they thought the gold and silver won from the mines by the wretched Indians would make their country great for ever, and so they despised honest toil. When Spain at length recognized the Dutch Republic she had sunk from the foremost place in the world to the rank of a third-rate Power.

*Read :* Hale's *The Romance of the Great Armada* (Nelson).

## 29. THE HUGUENOTS.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns : Elizabeth** (1558) ;
**James I.** (1603).]

The French king Francis I., who was captured at Pavia by the Emperor Charles V., was a child of the Renaissance. He was a good-natured, affable man, and a great patron of art, science, and learning. He encouraged literature, founded the library of Paris, built splendid palaces, and sent Jacques Cartier on that voyage of North American discovery which added Canada to the French crown. In France, as in other European countries, the spirit of the Renaissance influenced many persons on the moral and spiritual side. A Church reform movement sprang up, and the French Protestants became known as Huguenots.

Francis was no bigot, and at first was uncertain whether to favour the Huguenots or to crush them. He himself read the Bible with his mother and sisters, and he was strongly attracted to Erasmus. After the battle of Pavia he inclined to the side of the Church. He needed the help of the Pope and of his Roman Catholic subjects to recover the prestige which he had lost by his defeat and captivity. Religious persecutions began about the year 1534, but were not carried on to a great extent while Francis lived.

His successor, Henry II., was somewhat of the type of his fellow-sovereign Philip of Spain. He promised the Pope that he would exterminate from his kingdom all whom the Church denounced. There were many executions in his reign, but they did not check the growth of French Protestantism.

Despite the fact that he and Philip were united in the same crusade against the enemies of the Church, he made war on Spain and on the Empire. From Germany he seized Metz, Toul, and Verdun, three bishoprics which afterwards became fortresses and figured largely in the war of 1870, and in the Great War which began in 1914. In 1558, his general, Francis, Duke of Guise, took from the English Calais, the only scrap then remaining of their French possessions; but Spanish troops beat him severely at St. Quentin, a town which the Allies besieged during the Great War. Peace was made in 1559 at Le Cateau, which became familiar to the British people during the retreat of their army from Mons in August 1914.

Henry died in 1559, leaving a sickly and feeble-minded son of sixteen to succeed him. This king, Francis II., married Mary Queen of Scots, whose mother was Mary of Guise. Her two uncles managed to get most of the power into their own hands. The Guises were opposed by the leading members of the House of Bourbon—Anthony, King of Navarre, and Louis, Prince of Condé. These men had accepted the Reformed faith, and so had many other nobles and their families. Out of the quarrels of these two factions grew the terrible "wars of religion" in France.

When Francis died, in 1560, Mary left France for that chequered career in Scotland and England which ended on the scaffold. With her departure the power of the Guises greatly declined. The new king, Charles IX., was but ten years old, and his mother, Catherine de Medici, a very ambitious, intriguing, and unscrupulous woman, became regent. The deposed Guises and the Bourbons were jealous of her, and she had to pursue a balancing policy. She decided to allow the Huguenots some rights of public worship; but there was too much heat on the part of both Catholics and Protestants for anything like peace to obtain. Both parties blamed Catherine, and several times they came into fierce conflict. One of these affrays took place in Champagne in the year 1562, when the Duke of Guise and his armed followers attacked a party of Huguenots who were worshipping in a barn. Forty of the Protestants were slain, and such indignation was aroused that civil war began.

I need not trouble you with a detailed account of the terrible strife which followed. Religious wars are always the most barbarous and cruel of wars, and in France they out-Heroded Herod. Slaughter, burning, pillage, massacre, and murder were of almost daily occurrence, and before the long conflict ended the best blood of France had been shed and the country had become a desert.

When a brief peace was made in 1570, the three original leaders in the strife—the Duke of Guise, Anthony of Navarre, and the Prince of Condé—had all fallen either in battle or by the dagger of the assassin. The leader of the Protestant party was now Henry of Navarre, son of Anthony; and his chief counsellor was Admiral Coligny, the most honourable and high-minded man of his time. Henry of Navarre was a brave, frank warrior, whose white plume had been the "oriflamme"* of his followers in many a fierce fight. He was noble and chivalrous, and very winning in manner.

Moderate men on both sides now strove to bring about permanent peace, in order that France might be saved from hopeless ruin. King Charles by this time had taken upon himself the duties of king, and he too was inclined towards peace. As a first step towards uniting the parties, a marriage was arranged between Henry of Navarre and the king's young sister Margaret. Huguenots flocked into Paris to be present at the wedding, and all seemed to promise well. But beneath the outward show of amity there were fierce passions of hatred.

Catherine de Medici had lost influence, and she was eager to regain it. She saw Admiral Coligny becoming powerful, and determined to remove him. She now allied herself with the Guises, and on August 22, 1572, Coligny was shot and severely wounded. To prevent discovery and punishment, a great massacre of Protestants was hastily arranged, and on St. Bartholomew's day, the 24th, the streets of Paris ran red with

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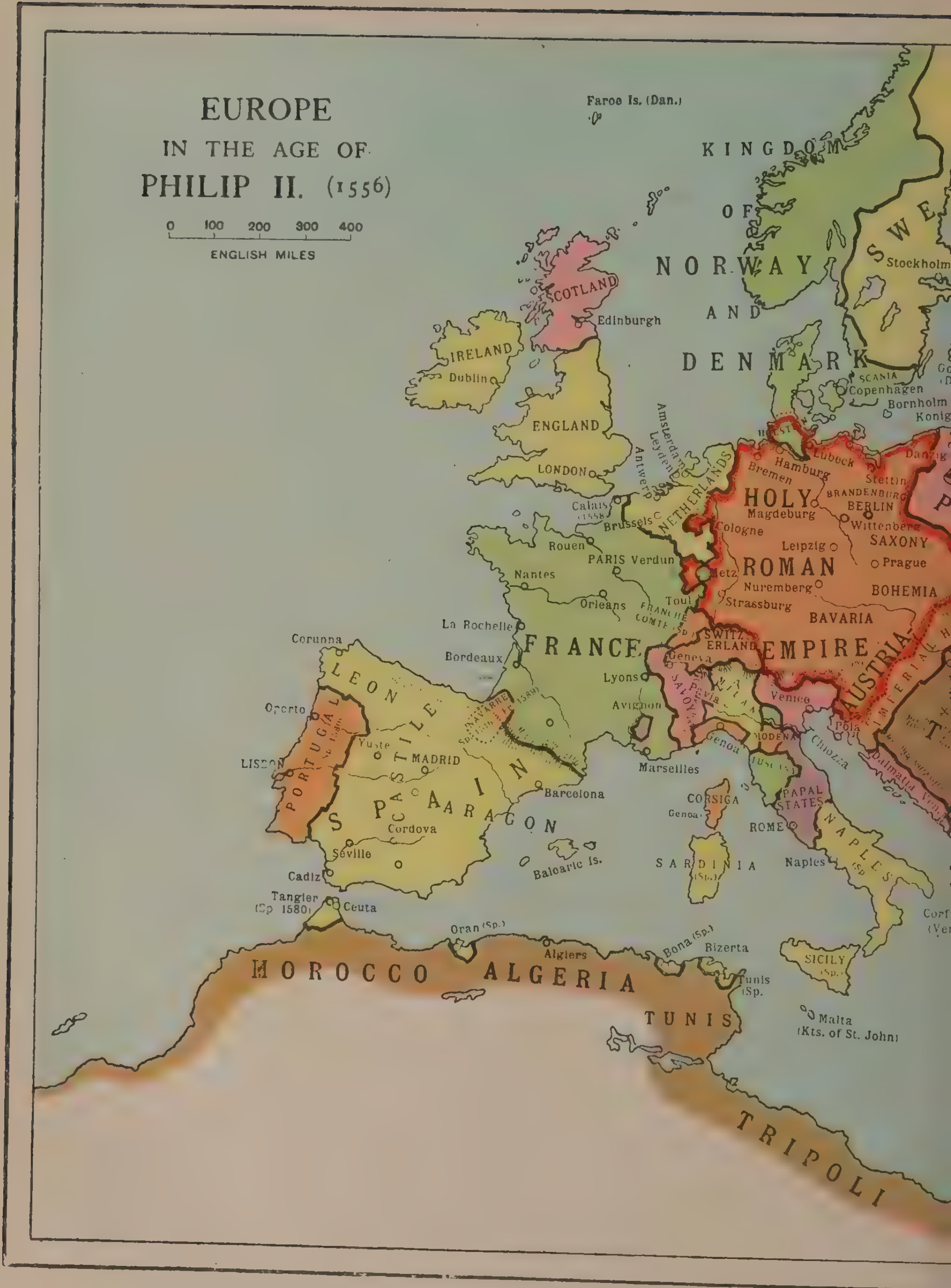
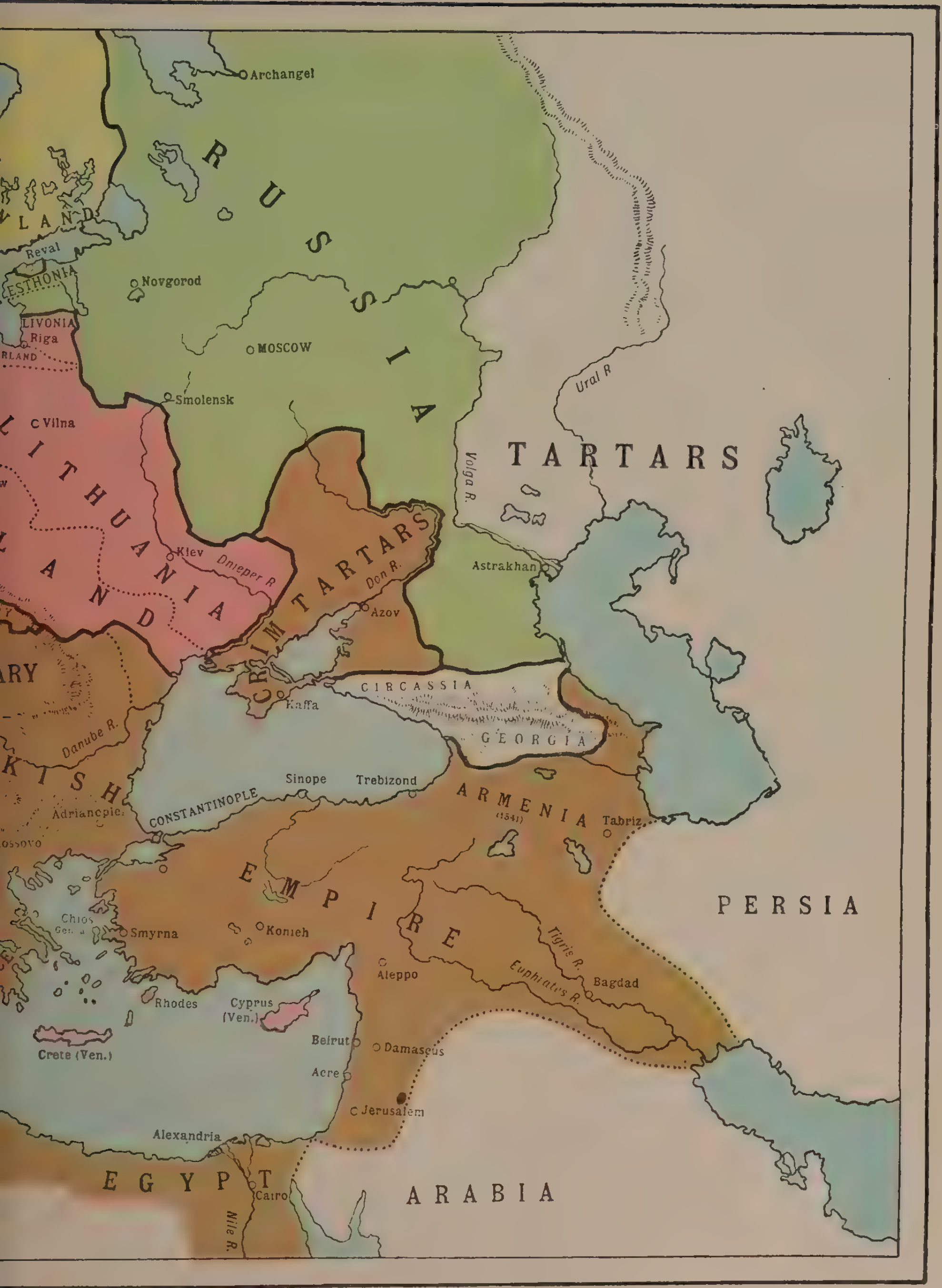
* See Macaulay's *Battle of Ivry*.



EUROPE
IN THE AGE OF
PHILIP II. (1556)


Archangel
RUSSIA
LAND
Reval
ESTHONIA
Novgorod
LIVONIA
Riga
RLAND
MOSCOW
Smolensk
Vilna
LITHUANIA
LAND
Kiev
Dnieper R.
CRIM TARTARS
Don R.
Azov
Ural R.
Volga R.
TARTARS
Astrakhan
ARY
Danube R.
CIRCASSIA
GEORGIA
Kaffa
KISH
Sinope
Trebizond
ARMENIA
(1541)
Tabriz
Adrianople
CONSTANTINOPLE
OSSOVO
EMPIRE
PERSIA
Chios
Gen.
Smyrna
Konieh
Tigris R.
Euphrates R.
Bagdad
Aleppo
Rhodes
Cyprus
(Ven.)
Crete (Ven.)
Beirut
Damascus
Acre
Jerusalem
Alexandria
EGYPT
Cairo
Nile R.
ARABIA

Huguenot blood. At least two thousand Protestants were slain in the capital, and eight thousand in the rest of France.

Immediately war began again. Two years later Charles IX. died, and his brother, Henry III., became king. Three parties now strove for the mastery, their leaders being Henry of Navarre, Henry, Duke of Guise, and Henry III., the reigning king. This struggle is known as the "War of the Three Henrys." The king's lawful successor died in 1584, leaving Henry of Navarre heir to the throne. The Catholics were horrified at the thought of a Huguenot wearing the crown, and in 1588 Guise drove King Henry from the capital. Later in the year the king brought about the murder of Guise.

The Roman Catholics now deposed the king, who fled for protection to Henry of Navarre, but was murdered just as he was about to advance with the Huguenot army on Paris. There was now no heir to the throne but Henry of Navarre. He won a great victory at Ivry in 1590. Three years later he became a Roman Catholic, and in the following year entered Paris in triumph. He justified his change of faith with the remark: "Paris is well worth a Mass."

His first business, now that he was firmly settled on the throne, was to bring about religious peace and to restore the prosperity of his land. In 1598 he issued what is known as the Edict of Nantes, a charter which gave the Huguenots liberty of worship, and threw open to them all the offices in the state. Certain fortified towns, the most important of which was La Rochelle, were handed over to the Huguenots as a guarantee that faith would be kept with them. For the rest of his reign the land had peace both at home and abroad.

With the help of the famous Duke of Sully, Henry placed the finances of the country on a sound footing, and did much to advance commerce and industry. It was he who established on a firm basis the great silk industry of France. He wished his people to be prosperous: every French peasant, he said, should have a chicken in the pot. In foreign policy he was an ally of our Queen Elizabeth; and he formed a project, or "Great Design," for a federation of the Western Powers, on

IN THE BRITISH EMBASSY DURING THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

the basis of common interests and toleration. The "Entente Cordiale" was thus first suggested three hundred years ago. Henry became the most popular of sovereigns, and there was deep grief when, in the year 1610, he was stabbed to the heart by a fanatic as he sat in his coach in a street of Paris.

The murdered king's son, Louis XIII., succeeded to the throne. As he was only nine years old, his mother was appointed regent. She was a weak woman, almost wholly in the hands of a favourite. When Louis was sixteen he had this favourite murdered and his mother exiled. Religious jealousies once more broke out, and a new civil war threatened; but from this fate France was saved by Cardinal Richelieu, who had served the queen-mother as Minister, but had been driven from office when her favourite was killed. In 1624 he was recalled by the young king, and from that year to his death, eighteen years later, he practically ruled France. The king was idle, and without any special ability, and he left everything to his Minister.

Richelieu has been described as the greatest politician whom France has ever seen. We know exactly what his policy was, for he stated it as follows: "I employed all my energy to ruin the Huguenot faction, to humble the pride of the nobles, to reduce all subjects to their duty, and to exalt France to its proper position among the nations." All these things he did, though his health was always feeble, and his enemies were always seeking to undermine his influence with the king. He did more: he laboured to make the French kings absolute monarchs, and thus sowed the seeds of those many evils which at length brought about their overthrow.

Let us see how Richelieu ruined the Huguenots. The Edict of Nantes had greatly increased their influence, and soon after he came into power they revolted, and aimed at becoming independent in their stronghold of La Rochelle, on the west coast of France. Now Richelieu had no desire to take away their freedom of worship, but he was resolved not to allow them to hive off and thus break up the unity of France. Churchman though he was, he took command of the army which besieged the Huguenot stronghold; and though the

Protestants defended themselves bravely, and were assisted by an English force under the Duke of Buckingham, they were forced to yield. Richelieu made peace with them, and did not treat them harshly. He left them all the rights which had been granted them by the Edict of Nantes, with this exception, that he greatly reduced their political power.

He had harder work to humble the power of the nobles. In order to bring them under the law of the land, he demolished the castles in which they maintained themselves as feudal chieftains, and he took away from them certain offices which gave them control of the army and navy. All who disputed the king's authority or plotted against him were brought to trial, and more than one of them laid his head upon the block. By firmness and vigilance Richelieu struck terror into the nobles, and thus greatly increased the power of the king.

His attempt to exalt France to what he called her "proper position amongst the nations" brought him into that terrible conflict known as the Thirty Years' War. I shall describe this great struggle in the next lesson. Here it will be sufficient to say that Richelieu's aim was to humble the House of Hapsburg, and, by intervening in the quarrel then going on in Germany, to make himself all-powerful in that country. He did not live to see the result of the struggle which made France practically the dictator of Europe.

*Read:* Stanley Weyman's *Count Hannibal* (Nelson).

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## 30. THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: James I.** (1603);
**Charles I.** (1625).]

I AM now about to describe one of the most ferocious, destructive, and unheroic struggles known to history. It arose out of the quarrels of Roman Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists in

Germany, and was at first a religious war. As time went on, however, it changed its character, and became a great struggle for mastery between France and Sweden on the one side, and the House of Hapsburg, representing Austria and Spain, on the other. In its later stages it was nothing better than the conflict of hired soldiers, bound only to the captain who enlisted them. The battles were fought not by peasants and burghers eager to defend their faith, but by men whose trade was war, and who cared for nothing except pay and plunder. The war dragged on because neither officers nor men wished to finish it. They were more concerned to sack towns than to win victories, and the result was that Germany suffered terrible devastation.

You remember the Peace of Augsburg (see page 202), which was an attempt to give the states of Germany the right to choose their own religion. This compromise did not succeed, because each side strove to gain some advantage at the expense of the other.

Let me remind you that when Charles V. divided up his dominions he gave his brother Ferdinand the government of all his Austrian lands, together with certain claims upon Hungary and Bohemia. Ferdinand, who became emperor, was a fervent Catholic. He wished to restore Germany to the Church, and he also had a great desire to make the power of the crown supreme.

At the beginning of the seventeenth century the Protestants of Germany formed an Evangelical Union for the purpose of defending their rights. The Catholics replied by forming a Catholic League, which supported Ferdinand, who also received the help of Spanish troops. Both sides were waiting for an opportunity to begin war. It came in 1618, when the Bohemian Lutherans, who had been granted rights of public worship, rose in revolt because they still suffered persecution. They seized the castle of Prague, and set up a government of their own.

Now the outstanding Protestant prince of the time was the Elector Frederick, Count Palatine of the Rhine, who had married Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England. Some of the buildings of the beautiful ruined castle or palace of

Heidelberg still preserve the name of this English princess. The rebels made Frederick King of Bohemia, and the Catholics immediately marched against him, under a skilful general named Tilly, the commander-in-chief of the Bavarian army. Frederick stood almost alone; the Evangelical Union, of which he was supposed to be the head, gave him little assistance, and the Bohemian nobles were lukewarm in his cause. The consequence was that in November 1620 his forces were utterly overthrown at the battle of White Hill, near Prague. He was obliged to flee from his kingdom; and when he did so, Ferdinand set about the work of putting an end to heresy in Bohemia. His hand was very heavy, and before long the country was almost completely restored to the Church.

So far the war was only a local struggle in Bohemia; it was no more than a fight between Ferdinand, the lawful king of Bohemia, and Frederick, who had been set up as king by the rebels. Ferdinand, elated by his success, now urged the King of Bavaria to occupy Frederick's territories, which lay along the Rhine from Southern Germany to Bohemia. As a Protestant state was now threatened, the Lutherans came to Frederick's assistance; but though they won a victory, they were no match for Tilly and the Spanish soldiers. Frederick's position was so hopeless that he disbanded his army, hoping thereby to secure easy terms; but he hoped in vain. All his territories were taken from him, and were given to the King of Bavaria.

There was great grief in Protestant countries at this disaster. Most of the North German princes who were Protestants became alarmed; and James I. of England, who had fallen out with Spain and was anxious to help his son-in-law, made an alliance with King Christian of Denmark, whereby he was to fight for Frederick in return for regular money payments. Christian was by no means loath to take a hand in the fighting. He placed himself at the head of his own army and of troops from some of the Protestant states, and with these he invaded Germany. The quarrel had now extended through North Germany to Denmark.

Ferdinand found a new ally in Wallenstein, prince of a small state in north-east Bohemia and lord of wide lands in Moravia. Wallenstein was one of the most powerful and wealthy men in the dominions of the Hapsburgs. He was also one of the two really strong men produced by the Thirty Years' War. Wallenstein cared nothing about the religious side of the struggle; his main concern was to serve his own ends, though he also wished to put down internal disorder and give Germany a strong and stable government. He now proposed to raise an army which would cost Ferdinand nothing. It was to consist of fifty thousand soldiers, who were to be fed and paid by the districts through which they passed.

In the year 1626 each side had two main armies in the field. On the Protestant side King Christian led one and Count Mansfeld the other. The two Catholic armies, which were superior in every way, were under the command of Tilly and Wallenstein. A series of battles was fought, with the result that the Protestants were everywhere defeated. Wallenstein swept through Northern Germany, overran Denmark, and forced King Christian to take refuge on the Danish islands. He was now planning to break down the power of the local princes, and to build up a strong, united empire, of which Ferdinand would be the head while he would be the power behind the throne. He suffered no check until he reached Stralsund, on the Baltic Sea. This town was strongly garrisoned by the Protestants, and Wallenstein was held up. Though he declared he would have it "even though it were fastened to heaven by chains of iron," he could not capture it, and was forced to retire.

The Imperialists were now at the summit of their success. Denmark was out of the struggle, and there was no army in the whole of Germany to stand against the forces of Tilly and Wallenstein. Ferdinand now thought that the hour had come to make an end of Protestantism in Germany altogether. He ordered the Protestant princes to give up all the Church property which had fallen into their hands since the Peace of Augsburg, and this roused them to fierce resistance. Some of the Roman Catholic princes, seeing that Wallenstein was aiming at their ruin either in the interests of his imperial master or of himself, also rose up against him, and demanded that he should be removed from the head of the army. Ferdinand was forced to yield to them, and throw to the wolves his best general and his ablest adviser.

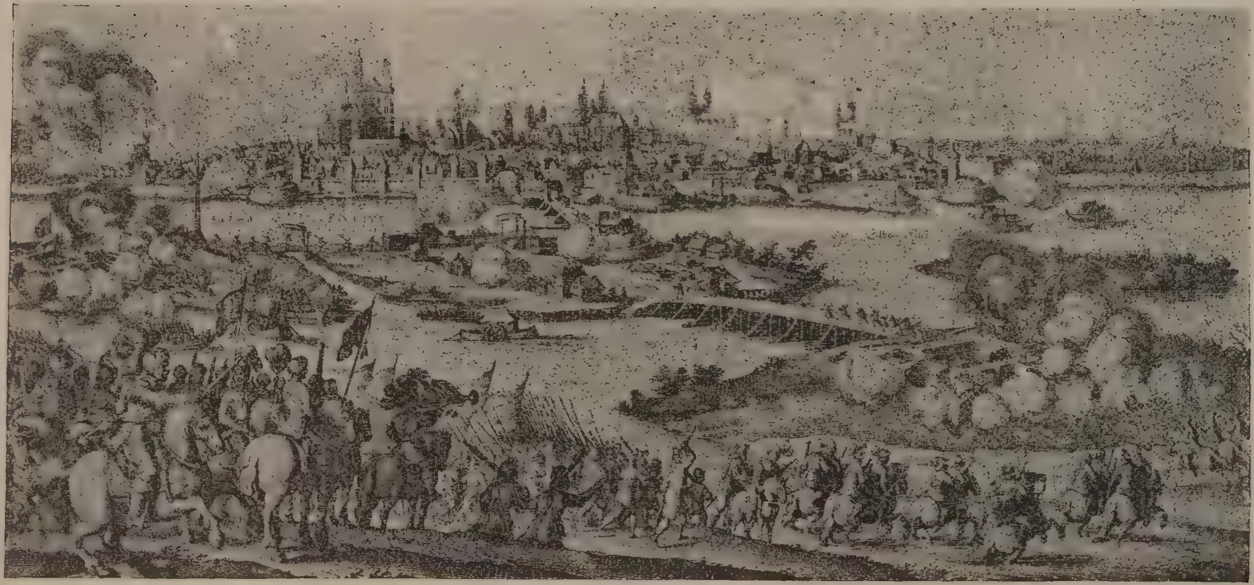
A week before Wallenstein was dismissed another nation took a hand in the struggle. The Swedes had helped Stralsund to hold out, and now, under the command of their heroic king, Gustavus Adolphus, they landed in Pomerania. Gustavus was a man of high character, and was sincerely anxious that the Protestantism which he professed should not be stamped out of Germany. Further, he wished to make the Baltic Sea a Swedish lake, and for this purpose had already waged war against Denmark, Russia, and Poland. By means of these wars he had made himself master of the whole Baltic coast on the northern side, and on the southern side as far as Prussia. If the emperor could establish himself on the northern coast of Germany, there would be an end to his design. For these and for other reasons, none of which were petty or sordid, he now came to the rescue of the Protestants of Germany.

Gustavus brought with him no motley array of adventurers, but an organized army, the finest of its time. It was fired with a real love of king and faith, and was under strict discipline. In its ranks were several regiments of Scots, who had gone over to help their co-religionists. The army was divided into brigades, called the Blue, Green, Yellow, and so on, from the distinguishing colour of their plumes, and the sashes which they wore over their armour. Gustavus was one of the world's greatest generals, and a military reformer as well. Instead of sending his soldiers forward in masses, he trained them to fight in open order. His musketeers were more numerous than was usual at the time, and he armed them with a better weapon than that carried by the Germans. Though his field guns were lighter than those of the enemy, they could fire three shots to the German one.

You must read elsewhere the full story of the campaigns of Gustavus. By the end of the year 1630 he had forty thousand men under his command, and was master of almost all Pomerania. He tried to get the Protestant princes of Germany to join him; but while they hesitated to hand over their country to a foreign king, assistance came to him from another quarter. Richelieu had by this time captured La Rochelle, and had mastered the Protestants. He was now ready to begin that attempt to humble the Hapsburgs which was to make France dictator of Europe. A treaty was signed by which Gustavus was to receive a large annual sum of money for the purposes of the war, and in return he promised not to root out Catholicism from the districts in which it was established. Richelieu had thus begun his campaign, though he was not yet ready to send an army to Germany.

For some time after this treaty Gustavus did not show much energy. He was trying to come to an understanding with the Protestant princes of North Germany. Many of them still held aloof, and while he strove to win them to his side a great disaster occurred. The Protestant city of Magdeburg was plundered and utterly destroyed by the army of the League under Tilly. Over twenty thousand inhabitants were butchered in cold blood, and the survivors were treated with horrible barbarity. The Protestant princes, including the greatest prince of the north, the Elector of Saxony, were at length roused. They joined Gustavus, who marched south, and at Breitenfeld, near Leipzig (1631), utterly routed the army of the League, and destroyed it as a fighting force.

Gustavus was now master of Germany. The Catholics were just as helpless as the Protestants had been a year previously. Munich fell; Vienna was threatened, and to such straits was the emperor reduced that he had to call on Wallenstein to come back and save him. That great commander took the field early in 1632, and began the task of driving Gustavus out of the country. He led his troops to Bavaria, and entrenched himself in a strong position on a height close to Nürnberg. Gustavus followed him, and established himself in a strong camp round the city. For weeks the two armies watched each other. Then an outbreak of disease and lack of provisions drove Gustavus to action. He made a desperate assault on the almost impregnable lines which Wallenstein had constructed, and was repulsed.



A SIEGE DURING THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

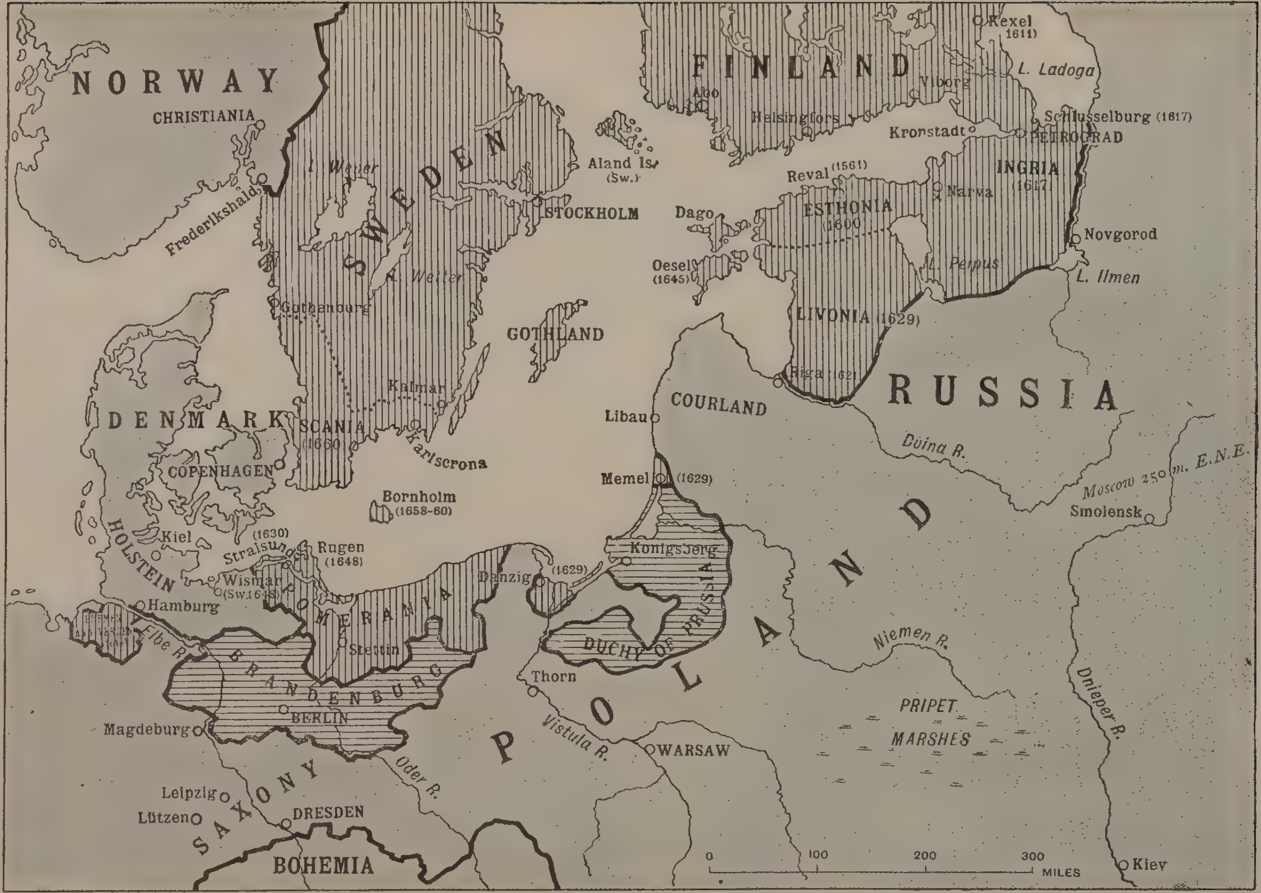
(*From a contemporary print.*)

The picture shows the taking of Magdeburg by the Imperialists under Tilly in 1631. The attacking force has captured the outlying forts, from which the defenders are seen fleeing; the suburbs are in flames. The artist has marked the river both with its Latin name, *Albis*, and with its modern title. In the foreground cavalry are seen carrying the foot soldiers across a stream on their horses. You will observe that some of the cavalry of that age (*cuirassiers*) still wore complete armour. The foot, more lightly equipped, were divided into pikemen and musketeers. The ark-like structures on the river are floating mills. After the capture of the city terrible atrocities took place, and many of the inhabitants drowned themselves in the Elbe.

The decisive encounter, however, took place at Lützen, near Leipzig, in 1632, when twenty thousand Swedes faced about the same number of imperial troops. Before the battle began the Swedes knelt in prayer, and then, with the trumpets sounding Luther's famous hymn, "A mighty fortress is our God," they advanced and gained ground, but were driven back by a furious cavalry charge. Gustavus rallied his men, and led them forward, but was cut off with a few companions, and fell shot through the head. His white horse dashing riderless through the ranks of the Swedes struck dismay into their hearts. But another leader sprang forward, and, after one of the most desperate and doubtful battles of history, drove Wallenstein from the field.

After the death of Gustavus other Swedish leaders continued the war, but for a time could make no headway against Wallenstein, who was now trying to make terms with the Protestant princes in order to drive out the foreigners and restore peace and order to Germany. The South German Protestants now joined the Swedes, who won a success which brought about the downfall of Wallenstein. He was again removed from his post at the head of the army, and in 1634 was murdered by a band of conspirators. Shortly afterwards the emperor's son, Ferdinand, won a victory at Nördlingen, and forced the Swedes to give up Southern Germany. A peace was made in the following year, and the war seemed to have ended in favour of Ferdinand.

The hour had arrived when Richelieu was ready for that bold bid which was to make his king master of Europe. He now openly allied himself with Sweden and the Dutch against the Hapsburgs of Austria and Spain. Thenceforward the war lost its religious character, and became a trial of strength between two royal houses. It was no longer an affair of the Germans, who looked on while rival armies struggled for the mastery. While a Swedish army was operating in North Germany, a French army won successes in South Germany, but reaped little advantage from them until 1646, when Turenne, one of the most famous generals of history, was placed in command. Everywhere the forces of the emperor were



THE BALTIC SEA AS A SWEDISH LAKE.

Illustrating the wars of Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII., and showing the Swedish control of the German rivers in 1648.

pushed back, and meanwhile Germany was harried with fire and sword. Most of the land was ravaged over and over again. We hear of a village plundered "twenty-eight times in two years, and twice in one day." The population was reduced by more than one-half; the fields were deserted; cattle were destroyed by the thousand; and the peasants, starving and homeless, died of hunger and pestilence. Industry was ruined, and the cities fell into decay. During the following century Germany was the poorest country in Europe.

Defeat after defeat forced the Hapsburgs to make terms with their foe. Ferdinand III., who succeeded his father in 1637, had to sign the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, and thus the humbling of the House of Hapsburg was complete. It never afterwards strove for universal empire, though it still remained the chief power in Germany. Ferdinand had to recognize the independence of the Northern Netherlands and Switzerland; had to confirm the French in their possession of the bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and hand over to them the province of Alsace. Sweden was given Western Pomerania and control of the mouths of the Oder, Elbe, and Weser. There was also a good deal of shuffling of territory among the German princes. Brandenburg was greatly enlarged, and its elector became the most powerful prince of Germany. It is important for us to notice the rise of Brandenburg, for it afterwards grew into the kingdom of Prussia, which in time became the rival and conqueror of Austria, and the creator and leading state of the German Empire.

The Peace of Westphalia saved the Protestantism of Germany. By this treaty it was agreed that the rights granted by the Peace of Augsburg should remain, and should be extended to the Calvinists. All the land that was Protestant on January 1, 1624, was to remain Protestant, and all the land that was Catholic at that date was to remain Catholic.

I want you to notice one very important result of the Thirty Years' War. The ruin which had been wrought by the quarrels of Catholics and Protestants had taught men a much-needed lesson. They saw that even the longest and fiercest strife had not enabled them to force all men to think alike on religious matters. Thenceforth they were more tolerant; they saw that it was wiser to let men worship God as they thought fit. Religious liberty was not yet established, and there were still to be many religious quarrels attended by persecution; but after the Peace of Westphalia a new spirit was evident. One hundred and fifty years later there was no persecution for religion's sake in any civilized country.

*Read:* Henty's *The Lion of the North* (Blackie).

## 31. THE RISE OF HOLLAND.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: Charles I.** (1625); **Commonwealth** (1649); **Charles II.** (1660).]

In Lesson 28 you learned that the Northern Netherlands were recognized as independent in the year 1648. You will remember that they had really become so when Philip III. was forced to make a twelve years' truce with them (1609). The eighty years following this truce were Holland's golden age. As you would naturally suppose, the "Beggars of the Sea," who had successfully resisted the veterans of Spain, were daring and skilful sailors; they were soon to be famous explorers as well.

The first Dutch ship to cross the Atlantic was a small, clumsy, high-pooped vessel, named the *Half-Moon*. It was commanded by Henry Hudson, an English sailor in the pay of Holland, and was manned by a score of Dutch and English seamen. Early in September 1609 Hudson sailed into the mouth of a great, lonely river flowing out of the heart of the then unexplored American continent. He spent three weeks in sailing up and down this river; and when he returned home the Dutch claimed all the country drained by the Delaware and Hudson Rivers. Traders from Holland arrived; the New

Netherlands came into being, and New Amsterdam, now the city of New York, was founded on Manhattan Island.

Five European states were seeking to establish empire overseas at this time. Spain still held vast possessions, but her power was on the wane. Portugal had declined, and France was still struggling to found her great colony in Canada. The Dutch had advanced greatly during their long war with Spain. They had obtained the control of the East Indies, and had founded an East India Company. Their navigators explored alike the Arctic seas and the far South. By the beginning of the seventeenth century Holland had become the leading colonial and sea Power. She owed her greatness to her sailors, who had learned their seamanship and had developed their courage and daring in the fisheries of the North Sea.

Vast riches began to flow into the country, and the burghers spent their wealth in adorning their cities with fine buildings and in encouraging artists and scholars. What is known as the Dutch school of painting attained its highest perfection during this period of prosperity. After the Peace of Westphalia, Holland became by far the most powerful of the United Provinces. She possessed the richest and most populous towns, and paid half the taxation. On the death of William, nephew of the Maurice who fought so well against the Spaniards, the Dutch people set aside the House of Orange and handed over the reins of government to a remarkable man named John de Witt, who represented the merchant princes of the country. Holland at this time resembled Great Britain before the Great War: her concerns were chiefly commercial and colonial.

Now we are to learn how Holland came into conflict with England. In that country the Civil War was approaching its end; Charles I. had been executed, and the Commonwealth had been established. Cromwell, who was soon to be Lord Protector, saw that the Dutch were England's most formidable rivals at sea. They then carried half the sea-borne commerce of the world, and much of their trading was done with the British colonies in America. The Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam thrust in a wedge between the British colonies of

New England on the north, and Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland on the south. To curb the trade of the Dutch, and so reduce their maritime power, Cromwell, in 1650, debarred all unlicensed ships from trading with the British colonies. In the next year he went a step further, and by the Navigation Act provided that all goods from abroad must reach England in English ships or in the vessels of the country which grew or manufactured them. This was a great blow to the Dutch carrying trade. It was meant to provoke the Dutch, and it did so. War broke out in the following year.

ROBERT BLAKE.

The English navy at the time of the First Dutch War was comparatively small, and was assisted by merchant vessels. The Dutch navy, on the other hand, was the finest in the world. While England had few good admirals, Holland had a train of veterans who had won striking successes in the war with Spain. Heavily handicapped as she was, England nevertheless made a stout fight, and before the war was over she had a strong fleet and a roll of sea heroes second to none. The English admiral was Robert Blake, an able and trustworthy man, and one of Cromwell's cavalry colonels. He speedily showed that he was every inch a sailor, and proved to be an admiral worthy to rank with the great Nelson himself.

Within sixteen months no fewer than thirteen great naval battles were fought. The war was waged with the utmost gallantry and spirit on both sides, and England was not without her defeats. On one occasion the Dutch admiral Van

Tromp forced Blake to retire, and then sailed the Channel with a broom at his masthead, to indicate that he had swept the English from their own seas. Blake had his revenge in the following year, when he defeated the gallant Dutchman off the North Foreland and hoisted a whip at the truck of his mainmast. In a later battle off the coast of Holland Van Tromp was killed. The Dutch now sued for peace, and Cromwell, knowing that England needed rest, came to terms with them, on condition that the Dutch should salute the English flag in English seas. Thus ended the First Dutch War.

Now we must pass on to the fifth year of the reign of the British king, Charles II. In the year 1665 England once more went to war with Holland, for no good reason except that Charles wished to handle the funds voted by Parliament to carry it on. He did his best to bring about defeat by squandering the money on his favourites; by choosing the wrong men as admirals; and by sending out leaky ships, manned by hungry and unpaid sailors.

A costly victory was won off Lowestoft in the first year of the war, but two years later the roar of foreign guns was heard for the first time by the citizens of London. De Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, burned Sheerness and the ships lying off Chatham, and even sailed up the Thames as far as Tilbury, that famous spot where Elizabeth, with the heart of a lion in her woman's body, had called upon her troops to repel the Spaniard in the hour of England's danger. In the Rijks Museum at Amsterdam may still be seen the carved and gilded sternwork of the *Royal Charles*, one of the captured ships. While De Ruyter's vessels were in the Thames, Charles was toying with his spaniels at Whitehall. Peace was concluded a month later, and Holland gained little or no advantage from her victory.

For fifty years the Dutch had been in peaceful possession of New Amsterdam. Now, in a time of peace, the English Government suddenly discovered that the place really belonged to England by right of an earlier discovery. An expedition was sent out, and in August 1664 the British flag flew from the fort of New Amsterdam. In honour of James, Duke of York, afterwards James II., its name was changed to New York.

Holland thus lost her colony on the mainland of North America; but to this day she remains an important colonial Power. In the East Indies she holds about 736,500 square miles of territory, and in the West Indies about 46,500 square miles.

The Netherlands, as you know, had emerged victorious after a long and terrible struggle with Spain, then the leading Power of the world. We are now to see her in conflict with France, which, after the Peace of Westphalia, had succeeded to Spain's supremacy. You remember that Richelieu, by destroying the political power of the Huguenots, and by curbing the nobles, had made the crown of France absolute. Louis XIII. had died five years before the Peace of Westphalia, and had been succeeded by his infant son, Louis XIV. What Richelieu had been to the father, another churchman, Mazarin, became to the son. In the year when the peace was signed, the nobles, thinking that Mazarin was a weaker man than Richelieu, rose in rebellion, in the hope of winning back their feudal privileges. The struggle, which was known as the Fronde, hopelessly failed, and thereafter the nobles became little more than tame courtiers.

Now, though the Peace of Westphalia had ended the war as far as Austria was concerned, hostilities with Spain still continued. After the Fronde was over, Mazarin was able, with the assistance of England, to force Spain to terms. That proud Power was then at its last gasp; never again did it recover its former influence and glory.

Mazarin died in 1661, and Louis, now twenty-three years of age, took the government into his own hands. His long reign of seventy-two years seemed to be a blaze of glory for France. The most brilliant Frenchmen of the time flocked to his court, including some of the greatest writers that France has ever known. No king was ever more absolute than he. Our own Stuarts were but feeble copies of him. He stamped out every vestige of independence from his kingdom; his people were his submissive slaves; he was his own Prime Minister, and he once declared, "The State: it is I." His courtiers flattered him with almost divine honours, and he really came to believe that he was designed by Providence expressly to be lord of Europe and king of its kings. He wrung vast sums of money from his long-suffering people by cruel exactions; he raised greater armies than had been seen in Europe since the downfall of the Roman Empire; and he became so strong that even a combination of nations could not overthrow him.

The reign of Louis was practically occupied by four wars, about all of which I shall have to say something. In the year 1667 he put forth some shadowy claims to the Netherlands through his Spanish wife. After informing the sovereigns of Europe that he intended to make a "journey" in the Netherlands, he went thither with fifty thousand men, under Marshal Turenne. The war did, indeed, resolve itself into a "journey." Town after town fell: Charleroi, Tournay, Douai, and Lille—all were taken between 24th May and the end of July. On 1st September the whole French army was in front of the walls of Ghent. The city, however, held out, and after taking Alost Louis went into winter quarters.

These rapid conquests alarmed England. She knew that an aggressive power seated in Flanders would be a serious menace to her trade and security, and she was therefore prepared to take the field against Louis. She allied herself with the Dutch and the Swedes, and this combination, known as the Triple Alliance, checked Louis for a time. He gave up a large part of the territories which his armies had occupied, and consented to a treaty of peace which left him stronger than ever. He was only sheathing his sword for a breathing space. He had already made a secret treaty with the Emperor Leopold for dividing up the dominions of Spain when the infirm king of that country should die.

In May 1670 Charles II. of England made a secret arrangement with Louis, known as the Treaty of Dover. By this infamous treaty Charles agreed to join Louis in fighting the Dutch, and in sharing the Netherlands between them. War broke out for no good reason two years later. While the combined English and French fleets engaged the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, Turenne led his army northwards, and secured the passage of the Rhine, which was then low after a long drought.

Again Turenne carried all before him. The magistrates of Amsterdam had almost decided to carry the keys to Louis, and De Witt was ready to yield, when young William, Prince of Orange, begged the people "to die in the last ditch" rather than submit. His splendid spirit rallied the Dutch. Several towns rose in his favour, and everywhere there were loud shouts of "Up with Orange!" De Witt and his brother were murdered, and William became Stadtholder, as his great ancestor, William the Silent, had been before him.

Louis had now to face a most dogged foe. The new Stadtholder was only twenty-two years of age, but he had already fought on many a fiercely-contested field. He was no genius, but he was stubbornness itself, and he made it the business of his life to oppose the ambition of the French king. He now ordered the dykes to be opened, and the sea poured in between Louis and the city of Amsterdam. Holland was saved; but the struggle between Louis and William had only begun. In 1674 the English Parliament, having learned something of the disgraceful secret treaty between Charles and Louis, demanded that peace should be made with Holland. This was done, and three years later William married Mary, eldest daughter of James, Duke of York.

Louis still continued the war against Sweden; but though his generals managed to win battles, he was glad enough to end the struggle as soon as peace was offered. By the Treaty of Nimeguen (1678) the "Free County" of Burgundy was added to France. Three years later Louis seized Strassburg, which had been retained by the empire when France received Alsace. He was now at the summit of his power and glory.

Before beginning the new war, which he was even now planning, he fell under the influence of Madame de Maintenon, who urged him to put an end to Protestantism in France. Persecution began, and in 1685 he revoked the Edict of Nantes, which had given a certain amount of freedom of worship to the Huguenots for a hundred years. This measure was as harmful to France as the expulsion of the

Moriscos had been to Spain. Some fifty thousand of the most skilful and industrious families of France fled, and settled chiefly in England, Holland, America, and Prussia, to the great advantage of these countries.

*Read:* Sir Arthur Conan Doyle's *The Refugees* (Nelson).

## 32. THE "GRAND MONARCH."

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: James II.** (1685); **William III.** (1689); **Anne** (1702).]

THREE years after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes there was a revolution in England. James II., brother of Charles II., a tactless, stupid man, " stiff in opinion, always in the wrong," managed to drive the whole nation into opposition. Whigs and Tories alike united to invite William of Orange to come over and defend the liberties which James was bent on taking from them. Both Houses of Parliament offered the throne to William and his wife Mary on certain conditions. The offer was accepted, and the Revolution was completed almost without the shedding of blood.

England had done with absolute kings. In the island kingdom the struggle for mastery between king and people had ended. The question, " Who shall rule ? " had been answered once for all. Across the Channel, however, there was an absolute king who was to hold his own for many a long day. William had agreed to accept the throne of England chiefly in order that he might have greater resources with which to fight his old enemy.

Scarcely had he been seated on the throne before Louis took the field once more. He invaded Germany, and again Europe was in a state of alarm. He received the exiled King James at his court, and gave him men, money, and arms with which to try to win back the kingdom that was determined to have no more of him. During the peace William had toiled hard to form an alliance against Louis, and now he succeeded. In May 1689, England, Spain, the Dutch Republic, Germany, and Savoy formed the "Grand Alliance." Its object was to curb the power and ambition of Louis, and force him to surrender his conquests. With the great good will of the English people, William declared war on France, and before the end of the year his allies had followed his example. France was about to be attacked on every side.

While William was engaged in crushing the forces led by James in Ireland, a great French fleet left the port of Brest and entered the English Channel. It coasted along our southern shores, and the Anglo-Dutch fleet, under Lord Torrington, fought an indecisive battle with it off Beachy Head (June 30, 1690). Shortly afterwards news arrived in London that James had been badly defeated at the Battle of the Boyne, and was flying for his life. Louis had been at the back of the Irish campaign, and now that it had failed he prepared for the invasion of England. He assembled on the coast of Normandy an army of thirty thousand men, with five hundred transports. The British fleet, now under Admiral Russell, was again joined by the Dutch, and in a five days' battle (May 19–23, 1692) completely defeated the French. Part of their fleet retreated through the rocky channel called the Race of Alderney, and reached St. Malo safely, as described in Browning's poem "Hervé Riel." Other ships and several of the transports intended for the invasion were burned under the eyes of James II. near Cape La Hogue.

Though defeated at sea, the forces of Louis were generally victorious on land. In 1691 both the British and the French king took a personal part in the war. Mons was besieged, and William, who was in the neighbourhood, could not muster sufficient troops to prevent its capture. In the next year Louis attacked Namur, the great fortress at the confluence of the Sambre and Meuse, which fell so suddenly and unexpectedly at the beginning of the Great War. Its capture by Louis was such a bitter blow to the members of the Grand Alliance that they almost gave up the struggle in despair. William, how-

LOUIS XIV., THE "GRAND MONARCH" (REIGNED 1643–1715).

ever, bent all his energies to the task of keeping them together; and though other defeats were in store for him, his resolution never faltered. He was beaten at Steinkirk, mainly owing to the bad generalship of a subordinate; and again at Neerwinden, though in this case the French bought their victory dearly. Nevertheless, with unfailing courage and resource he constantly repaired his disasters.

At the beginning of the struggle Louis had said that the last piece of gold would win. Now he was to learn the truth of his prophecy. By every sort of device he had ground money out of his people, until they were in a terrible state of destitution. The corn and wine harvests had failed, and "France," said the king's Minister, "is only a large hospital, desolate, and without food." Britain was well-nigh exhausted too, and both kings were ready for peace, which was made at Ryswick, a village near The Hague, in September 1697. Louis undertook to restore certain fortresses and places which he had captured during the war, and promised not to aid William's enemies, directly or indirectly.

Louis had gained nothing by the war, and he now perceived a better way of extending his dominions. The poor imbecile King of Spain, Charles II., was dying without an heir to succeed him. He was master of Spain, the Spanish Netherlands (now Belgium), and a large part of Italy, together with the Spanish colonies in America and in the West Indies. If Louis or some prince of his house should succeed to the Spanish throne, France would become the mistress of Europe. William's great aim had always been to prevent the Spanish heritages, especially the Netherlands and the American colonies, from falling into the hands of Louis. In fairness it must be said that up to the time of the Treaty of Ryswick the French king had not unduly pressed his claim.

There were three claimants to the Spanish throne—Louis, the Emperor Leopold (both of whom were connected with the Spanish house either by marriage or descent), and Joseph, a Bavarian prince, who was descended from a former King of Spain. In 1698 William and Louis had agreed that on the death of Charles Joseph should succeed to the bulk of the

Spanish dominions, and that the Italian possessions should be equally divided between the eldest son of the French king and the Archduke Charles, the second son of the emperor. Unfortunately Joseph died in 1699, and next year another agreement was made between William and Louis, whereby the Archduke Charles was to step into Joseph's shoes, and the Spanish territories in Italy were to fall to France. Such was the state of affairs three years after the Treaty of Ryswick.

The news of this arrangement greatly enraged the Spaniards, who naturally desired to prevent their empire from being broken up. The Spanish queen was so furious that she smashed all the furniture in her room; and the king was just as angry, even if he did not show it in the same way. Probably Louis only made the agreement with William in the hope of angering the Spaniards. If so, he succeeded admirably. Charles now began to repent of his intention to leave his dominions to the Archduke Charles, and was persuaded to make a will in favour of Philip, Duke of Anjou, a younger grandson of the French king. Louis accepted this will, and on the death of Charles, in November 1700, Philip became King of Spain as Philip V. The House of Bourbon now ruled the whole of the west of Europe, and it was openly said, "There are no longer any Pyrenees."

William had suffered a bad defeat, and he felt it bitterly. He knew that some day Philip might become King of France; but in any case he was well aware that a French prince on the throne of Spain was a great danger to Europe, and especially to Great Britain. At this time William was unpopular with his English subjects; but when the succession of Philip to the Spanish throne was announced, public opinion began to veer round, and William was able to send ten thousand troops to Holland under the command of Marlborough, who was afterwards to win such brilliant victories. A little later he himself went to The Hague, and laboured hard to form another "Grand Alliance." This time Great Britain, Austria, and Holland leagued themselves against France and Spain. Other Powers subsequently joined them.

Before anything decisive could be done William was dead.

His health had always been bad, and now, worn out by disease and anxiety, he succumbed to a slight accident. He died long before his work was done. The great duel between the Allies and France was only in its opening stages. During a large part of the next hundred and fourteen years Britain and France were to be engaged in open warfare, and in the course of the long and deadly struggle France was to lose her colonial empire and her mastery of Europe. Not for one hundred and fifty-two years were the ancient foes to lay aside their old hatred, and begin to draw together into that warm friendship which has been cemented during the Great War into a glorious comradeship of valour and mutual admiration.

One year after William's death, Louis found armies arrayed against him in four different countries—in the Spanish Netherlands, in South Germany, in North Italy, and in Spain. The commander of the allied British, Dutch, and Germans in the Netherlands was Marlborough. In North Italy the Austrian forces were under Prince Eugene of Savoy, a man of extraordinary courage and talent, who was worshipped by his men, and still lives as a hero in song. No two such generals had ever before commanded armies against Louis. On the other hand, the French king was now stronger than he had ever been. He commanded the resources not only of France, but of Spain as well. Further, his forces were united under the control of one man, while the Allied command was divided.

The beginning of the war was uneventful. Marlborough, however, managed to capture a number of fortresses along the line of the Meuse, and by doing so cut off the French from the Lower Rhine, and made the invasion of Holland impossible. For the rest, the campaign was indecisive.

Marlborough was now on the threshold of his great career. Like his predecessor, William, he owed little to early training and much to his natural abilities. The keynote of his greatness as a general was the vigour and audacity of his plans. His great obstacle was the slowness and caution of the Dutch, who refused again and again to co-operate with him in the brilliant movements which he suggested. Calm and unruffled, patient and tactful, he composed all the differences of his allies, and proved himself to be even greater in the council chamber than on the battlefield.

Louis now made a bold bid for victory. He sent the flower of his army into Bavaria, where the local troops joined them, and an attempt was made to capture Vienna. The scheme failed for the moment, and early in 1704 Marlborough determined to make a dash for the Danube. To do this he had to march right across Germany from the Lower Rhine, while Prince Eugene had to cross the Alps from Italy. Both these movements were perilous, but the difficulties were overcome. By his boldness and secrecy Marlborough completely deceived the enemy, and not until he had united his forces with those of Eugene was his real object revealed.

JOHN CHURCHILL,
DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH (1650–1722).

On August 13, 1704, the armies faced each other, and the battle of Blenheim began. The fight was decided at the close of the day by two furious cavalry charges led by Marlborough in person. He broke the French cavalry, and then drove the enemy southward to the Danube, where they were obliged to drown or yield. Eleven thousand men laid down their arms, and fifteen thousand others were slain, drowned, or wounded. "It was a famous victory." Austria was saved, and the French were driven out of Germany. The moral effect of the battle was, however, still greater. For half a century the French had been considered invincible; now the spell was broken, and the prestige of France had vanished.

Next year Marlborough began to attack the great line of French fortifications which then extended almost from Antwerp to Namur. In some places he was fighting on ground where British troops fought during the Great War. At the end of 1705 the position of affairs was " as you were." Next year, however, Marlborough again covered himself with glory. He almost destroyed the French army at Ramillies, and made himself master of the whole of Belgium.

Prince Eugene also fared well in Italy, where he drove the French troops across the Alps. Austrian and British forces also entered Spain, where, however, they met with a stubborn resistance, and made but little progress. In 1708 Marlborough and Eugene won another great victory at Oudenarde. The French army flying back into France was pursued, and the fortress of Lille was captured. Louis now begged for peace; but the Allies offered him terms which he could not accept, and so, much against his will, the war went on. Next year (1709) Marlborough, after a terrible struggle, defeated the French at Malplaquet, ten miles south of Mons. This was his last triumph. The British nation was tired of the war, and was ready to bring it to a close.

Peace was signed at Utrecht in 1713; and by the terms of the treaty Great Britain received Gibraltar and Minorca, which her seamen had already captured, together with Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, and the right to send one trading ship a year to the Spanish Main. It was also agreed, amongst other matters, that France and Spain should never be united under one sovereign. The Emperor received the bulk of the Italian possessions of Spain, together with the Spanish Netherlands, which were thenceforth known as the Austrian Netherlands. The Dutch were granted a number of border fortresses in the Austrian Netherlands as a barrier against France.

Shortly after the treaty was signed Louis XIV. died, a bitterly disappointed man, and a perpetual warning to ambitious kings. To the people of his time he was the " Grand Monarch," a figure of showy but hollow splendour; future generations, however, had good cause to curse his memory. He had sucked up the manhood and wealth of his country like a sponge, and he had laid the mine for that great upheaval which seventy-eight years later swept away the kingship from France, and ushered in, with terrible violence and bloodshed, a new era of liberty.

*Read:* Thackeray's *Esmond* (Nelson).

## 33. THE BEGINNINGS OF RUSSIA.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: William III.** (1689); **Anne** (1702); **George I.** (1714).]

So far in these pages we have heard next to nothing about Russia. The reason is not far to seek. Right down to the time of Peter the Great, who was born in the year that William of Orange was made Stadtholder of Holland, Russia stood apart from the rest of Europe. Russia was never brought into contact with the civilization of the Roman Empire, and the very name was unknown in classical times. It was Peter the Great who built St. Petersburg, on the Neva, as his "window looking towards Europe." Up to his day the great steppes of Russia were more remote to the people of Western Europe than New Zealand is to us to-day.

The history of European Russia is the story of how a race known as the Slavs entered Europe from the East and gradually conquered the land and settled down in it. Very little is known of the early history of these people. We do know, however, that in the time of the Romans they dwelt near the Danube, and that their first settlements were made on the Dnieper, where they built cities—amongst others, Kiev.

In the ninth century the Russian tribes came into contact with those restless sea robbers the Norsemen, who, as you are aware, harassed the coasts of almost every European country. The Norsemen who invaded Russia were known as Varangians. They were bands of armed rovers of the type led by Rollo the

Ganger, who founded Normandy. Some of these Varangians travelled through Russia to Constantinople, where, as you already know, they took service in the bodyguard of the Byzantine emperors. By means of these roving bands trade sprang up between Constantinople and Scandinavia.

The leader of one of these bands was Rurik, a man of great strength and ability. In the course of his journey he reached Novgorod, on the northern shore of Lake Ilmen, and there settled down. This town was then the capital of a Slavonic tribe which seems to have had a previous connection with the Varangians. Rurik soon impressed the Slavs, and was invited to become their king. Later on the Varangians settled in Kiev, in order to guard the caravan roads to Constantinople. They intermarried with the natives, who called their land "Rus," and themselves Russians. No one knows what "Rus" originally meant. As time went by Rurik's son Igov became Grand Duke of Kiev, and under his leadership the Slavs of the south became a strong people, and made themselves masters of the surrounding cities and country. Quarrels broke out between the members of the ruling family, and at last one of the dukes led his people north, and began the work of colonizing Central Russia. The history of the next two centuries is the record of how various leaders divided up the country into petty principalities and dukedoms.

By the tenth century Kiev was the most important city of the country, and Novgorod had sunk into the background. Vladimir, great-grandson of Rurik, was then the ruling prince. He adopted the Christian religion, and forced baptism upon his subjects. By the year 1200 Russia was as civilized as any other European country of the time. In Kiev there were many splendid churches and other public buildings, as well as much book learning.

In the year 1224 Jenghiz Khan, the chief of a tribe of nomad Mongols, invaded Europe and sacked Kiev and many other towns. These Tartars, as they were called, subdued the country, and for more than two centuries made it subject to their barbarous rule. Russian princes were forced to do homage to the Tartar khans, to pay them tribute, and to accompany them on military expeditions when required to do so. Unlike the Varangians, the Tartars held aloof from the Russians, and did not intermarry with them. They were the ruling caste; they never adopted Russian habits or customs or the Christian religion, and only settled in and around the town of Kazan, where they still remain. Nevertheless they gave the Russian character an Eastern impress which has not yet passed away.

During the long period of Tartar rule the dukedom of Moscow became powerful. This dukedom was an offshoot of Kiev, and was peopled by Slavs who had intermarried with the Finns, a race which had invaded Europe in very early times, and had settled in the forests of the north. This mixture of Slavs and Finns produced the Great Russians, the strongest and toughest race of Russia. The grand dukes of Moscow managed to unite many smaller principalities and dukedoms into a kingdom, and in the middle of the fourteenth century the Grand Duke Ivan II. was sufficiently strong to call himself Prince of all the Russias. His son defeated the Tartars in a great battle (1380), and less than a century later (1462) a prince, Ivan III., arose, who threw off the Tartar yoke and called himself Tsar or Cæsar, the title borne by all Russian emperors down to the year 1917, when Russia became a republic.

Ivan III. was an able and ambitious man, and he borrowed his new title from the emperors or Cæsars of the East, the last of whom had fallen a few years previously when the Turks captured Constantinople. Ivan married a niece of the last Emperor of the East, and she brought with her to his court a number of learned Greeks, who had been driven from Constantinople by the Turkish conquest. They succeeded in giving Russia a share of the Renaissance, though, of course, it was a faint glimmer of light compared with the bright glow in the West.

Ivan's wife shared her husband's ambitions, and she instigated him to begin a career of conquest. His successors carried out the same policy, and the bounds of the kingdom grew apace both in extent and in civilization, though it was far behind the rest of Europe, from which it was cut off by

WILLIAM III. AND PETER THE GREAT IN THE SHIPYARD AT DEPTFORD.

hostile neighbours. On the west lay the kingdom of Poland and the powerful principality of Lithuania, and on the south were the dominions of the Turk. Russia was isolated from the progressive races of Western Europe, and until she could link up with them and learn from them she could never hope to become a great nation.

Ivan IV., who took over the reins of power in 1533, felt the need of contact with Western Europe, and called to his aid a German adventurer named Schlitt, who tried to bring in a body of German artisans, but was prevented from so doing by the Poles and the other frontier powers. It was in his reign that an English ship first entered the White Sea and opened up trade between England and Muscovy. Queen Elizabeth afterwards formed a commercial alliance with Ivan and sent an ambassador to his court.

The reign of Ivan was stained by many crimes, and he was justly styled "the Terrible." When angry he was a bloodthirsty maniac, who revelled in the most awful cruelties. In a fit of rage he struck his eldest son with an iron staff, and thus brought about the boy's death. Thereafter he was filled with remorse, and probably died of grief. Another side of his character is evident in the many fine buildings with which he adorned Moscow. It was during his reign that the Russians began to settle in Siberia.

For many years after the death of Ivan the Terrible the progress of Russia was held back by the struggles of various claimants to the throne. Gradually, however, Russia came more and more into touch with the West. In 1629 an ambassador from Louis XIII. appeared at Moscow, and Scotsmen were continually swarming into the country.

After a time of anarchy and civil war, caused by pretenders to the throne, Michael Feodorovich, of the House of Romanoff, became Tsar. From him were descended all the Tsars of Russia down to the day when the last holder of the title was deposed. In 1645 his son Alexis, a gentle, pious man, became Tsar. His reign was full of tumult, but he did much to improve the condition of Russia. He had three sons—Feodor, Ivan, and Peter—the last of whom was to be the greatest of all the Tsars, and the real founder of Russia as a European Power. Feodor reigned six years, and left his country on the verge of revolution. Ivan and Peter were crowned as joint Tsars, and their elder sister, Sophia, became regent.

During the regency Peter began to show that talent, energy, and strength which afterwards distinguished him. His education had been neglected; but even as a child he had greatly interested himself in shipbuilding and in the art of war. He now placed himself under tutors in these subjects. A Dutchman named Timmerman taught him shipbuilding; and Patrick Gordon, a Scotsman, and Lefort, a native of Geneva, instructed him in the military art. At his country seat of Preobrazinski he amused himself by forming and training a company of fifty lads. This company afterwards developed into a regiment known as the Preobrazinski Guards, and became the nucleus of the first regular Russian army. Peter also had several frigates built on the shores of a lake, and set himself diligently to learn the art of seamanship.

Arrived at the age of seventeen, he took the reins of government into his own hands, and employed himself in forming and training an army. In 1695 he felt himself strong enough to attack the Turks for the purpose of gaining possession of the Black Sea and securing an outlet to the Mediterranean. He besieged the town of Azov; but at first was unsuccessful, owing, it is said, to the treachery of his chief gunner, who deserted to the enemy. Next year, however, the town fell.

Hitherto Peter had been dependent on foreigners. Dutchmen had built his ships, and Scots and Swiss had commanded his army, which was chiefly composed of foreigners. He now determined to teach his own people the all-important arts of the time, and for this purpose sent young Russians to Italy, Holland, and Germany. In 1697 he decided to visit the West, and learn at first hand all that it had to teach him. During this tour of instruction he studied diligently the methods of Western government, the sources of Western wealth, the systems of trade, and the methods of manufacture. At Zaandam, in Holland, he worked as a ship's carpenter; and in other places he attended lectures, visited factories and workshops, and was untiring in his efforts to make himself acquainted with all the arts of civilization. In 1698 he visited England, and at Deptford, where the house which he occupied is still shown, studied the English methods of shipbuilding. He also engaged the services of artisans, engineers, and mathematicians to instruct him and his people.

While in Vienna he heard that the "Streltsi," or Russian Pretorian Guards, had broken out in revolt. They had twice risen during the regency of Sophia, and had plunged the country into civil war. Peter at once hurried home, and put down the rising with a cruelty that rivalled the ferocity of Ivan the Terrible. He was determined that these petted soldiery should never again disturb the realm. They were replaced by an army organized and disciplined on the European pattern.

Peter now began to reform almost every department of national life. Roads and canals were made; a navy was built; colleges and schools were founded; commerce and industry were encouraged. He introduced Western dress, and discouraged the wearing of long beards. The clergy opposed him; and on the death of the patriarch, in 1700, Peter handed over the functions of this prelate to a synod which he himself appointed and controlled. In this way he became head of the Church as he already was of the State.

Peter had intended that the outlet of Russia should be to the warm waters of the Mediterranean—an ambition which his successors cherished right down to the deposition of the last Tsar. He had, as you know, captured Azov, but it was of little use to him as long as the Turks held the Dardanelles. He now turned his attention to the Baltic, and decided that his route to the West should be by way of that sea. This brought him into conflict with the Swedes, who, as you know, regarded the Baltic as a Swedish lake.

I have already told you how Sweden rose to be the first power of the North in the days of Gustavus Adolphus, who extended his rule over almost the whole of the northern and eastern shores of the Baltic, and by his participation in the

Thirty Years' War won for his successor Western Pomerania and the lands round the Weser, the Elbe, and the Oder. The success of Sweden aroused the jealousy of her neighbours, and in the year 1699, when her king, Charles XII., was a lad of seventeen, Peter formed a league with Denmark and Poland to curb the power of Sweden, and take from her the territories which she had won from them.

The Allies supposed that they had but a raw boy to deal with. They soon discovered their mistake; for Charles turned out to be a warrior of remarkable energy and daring, though as a ruler he had no particular merit. Before the Allies were ready to act together, young Charles gathered his troops and suddenly crossed from Sweden to the island of Zealand, where he besieged Copenhagen, and forced the King of Denmark to sign a treaty of peace (1700).

Almost immediately he was on the move again. He sailed for the Gulf of Finland, where Peter's army was engaged in besieging the town of Narva. Taking advantage of a heavy fall of snow, which drove into the faces of the Russians, he attacked their entrenchments, and in the course of a few hours' fighting captured more prisoners than the number of men in his own army. Thereafter for a space he was able to renew the boast of Gustavus Adolphus that the Russians could not launch a single ship on the Baltic without his permission.

Having thus beaten two out of the three partners to the league, Charles turned upon the third, Augustus the Strong, King of Poland, and made short work of him. He had no intention of letting Augustus off lightly, for he regarded him as the backbone of the alliance. He did not mean to end the war until Augustus had given up his crown, and a successor pleasing to himself had been appointed in his stead.

*Read :* Whishaw's *Boris the Bear Hunter* (Nelson).

## 34. POLAND, SWEDEN, AND RUSSIA.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: Charles II.** (1660); **James II.** (1685); **William III.** (1689); **Anne** (1702); **George I.** (1714).]

Now that Poland has come into our narrative, I must briefly sketch its history up to this time. We do not know when the Slavonic race known as the Poles first entered the country, but we do know that they were established on the Vistula by the middle of the sixth century. The first historical incident in connection with the country occurred in the second half of the tenth century, when the heathen prince of the land was forced to pay tribute to the Emperor Otto. Two years afterwards the Polish king became a Christian, and his subjects were afterwards converted to the same faith by the labours of St. Adalbert. In the concluding years of the same century Boleslas was made king by the Emperor.

In the eleventh century Poland consisted of the territory on both sides of the river Warthe. By the conquest of Pomerania in the next century it won a seaboard on the Baltic. It afterwards acquired all the territory round about the Dnieper and the Dniester by the marriage of a Polish princess with the Prince of Lithuania. Victories over the Teutonic Knights further increased its bounds, until by the end of the Middle Ages it extended from the Baltic Sea to the Black Sea. Cracow was its capital.

Poland now seemed to be a powerful state that might thereafter play a large part in the affairs of Europe. It had, however, the seeds of decay within itself. The nobles became all-powerful: they robbed the people of their liberties, and put upon them burdens too grievous to be borne. They took away all power from the king, and set up a house of nobles which actually decreed that no new law might be made and no old law repealed unless this house was unanimous. One single noble was thus able to prevent all reform and maintain every abuse. By the *Liberum Veto*, as it was called, he could put a spoke into the whole legislative machinery of the country and bring about a deadlock. No wonder that under such a ridiculous system the country sank into anarchy and rapid decline. It lost territory to Sweden and Prussia, and the day of its downfall began to loom on the horizon.

Before, however, Poland sank out of sight as an independent country, it had one parting gleam of glory. In 1674 a noble named John Sobieski was elected king. He had fought against the Russians with great bravery, and had acquired a military reputation. His great renown, however, was won in the year 1683, when the Turks, taking advantage of a rebellion in Hungary against the Emperor Leopold, resolved on a great attack against Western Christendom. Turkish troops, reinforced by Hungarian rebels, marched on Vienna, leaving in their train sacked and burning villages and massacred peasants. In July, for the second time, they encamped before the walls of Vienna. The emperor and his court had fled, leaving in the city a garrison of about ten thousand men, with a cavalry force keeping watch on the enemy outside. For forty-seven days the Turks, who were 200,000 strong, flung themselves into the breaches made by their cannon, and by the mines which they exploded under the ramparts. Slowly they gained ground, and by the beginning of September Vienna was almost at its last gasp.

In his extremity Leopold besought aid from John Sobieski, who hurried towards Vienna and joined forces with a German army under the Duke of Lorraine, on whose staff was Prince Eugene, afterwards to be Marlborough's brilliant comrade in arms. By this time the Turkish army had suffered greatly, and when the combined forces of Christendom appeared, it was forced to turn its back to the walls of Vienna and meet the shock. The result was decisive : the Turks were totally defeated, and were compelled to retreat. Vienna was the high-water mark at which their progress was stayed. They were flung back from its walls like ocean waves from the cliffs of a rocky coast. In the old cathedral you may still see a huge bell cast out of the cannon captured by Sobieski and his allies from the Turks.

The Ottoman Empire was now assailed by the forces of Austria, Poland, and Venice ; but the Turks rallied and made a fierce resistance. In 1686, however, Buda was stormed, and in the following year the Turks were routed at the battle of Mohacs, on the very field where they had won their triumph a hundred and sixty-one years before. One by one the fortresses on the Danube fell, but the line of the river was held fast. Belgrade was captured by Prince Eugene in 1688, and after a crushing defeat in the year 1697 the Turks were forced to make peace, and to give up their conquests. Hungary and Transylvania were handed over to Austria ; Venice kept Dalmatia and the Morea, the Peloponnesus of ancient Greece; while Poland recovered some of her lost territory. The Ottoman Empire had received a blow from which it never recovered.

Sobieski, brilliant as he was and greatly as he had served Christendom, had a very disturbed and unhappy reign. His selfish, unpatriotic nobles constantly opposed him, and he died (June 1698), worn out before his time by labours in the field and anxieties in the council chamber. His successor was the Elector of Saxony, Augustus the Strong, who suffered hopeless defeat at the hands of Charles XII., as related in the last paragraph of Lesson 33. Augustus was deposed ; but when Charles attempted to force on the Polish nobles a king of his own choosing, they rallied round their deposed king, and restored him to the throne. For many years afterwards Charles hunted Augustus over the boggy plains of Poland, and though he beat him time after time, never succeeded in quite crushing him. At length, in 1706, he forced Augustus to take refuge in his own electorate of Saxony; and when he followed him up, the unhappy King of Poland was forced to make peace.

Charles was now ready to deal with Peter, who had not let the grass grow under his feet during the six years' interval. He had raised recruits, had manufactured munitions, and was now quite prepared to meet his old enemy. At once he won some successes, the most important of which was the capture of two strong Swedish forts commanding the Neva. In 1703, while the war was going on, he began the building of St. Petersburg, now called Petrograd, his "window looking towards Europe." The site was a dreary marsh, and thousands of workmen perished from cold and the unhealthy mists before the towers of the city arose. In five months his new capital was so far advanced that Dutch vessels sailed up the Neva to begin trade. Soon afterwards he fortified the island of Kronstadt, in order to protect the new city.

Five years later Charles was ready to invade Russia. He intended to march on Moscow, but was persuaded by Mazeppa, chief of the Cossacks, to turn southwards towards the district known as the Ukraine. The terrible cold of a Russian winter, and the bleak and desolate country, played havoc with the Swedish soldiers. Hundreds of them perished of hunger and exposure; but Charles still pushed on. Meanwhile Peter was marching towards him. In June 1709, beneath the walls of Poltava, the two armies met. The Swedes, though worn out with fatigue and privation, fought with their accustomed bravery; and Charles, though wounded in the foot, was ever in the thick of the fight, directing operations from a litter.

Peter, however, had learnt the lesson which the Swedes had taught him, and the result was that the Swedish army was almost wholly destroyed. Charles, with a few hundred horsemen, was forced to flee for refuge to Turkey. There he remained for five years, while his conquests in the north were stripped from him one by one. When he returned to Sweden, in 1714, he found that his country was exhausted, and that his people no longer supported him. He was killed in 1718, at the siege of Frederikshald, in Norway, and with him passed away the pride and glory of Sweden. The peace that followed reduced Sweden to its old limits. Hanover and Brandenburg took from her the Swedish provinces in Germany, Augustus the Strong was recognized as King of Poland, and Peter carried off all the Swedish possessions in the Eastern Baltic, except Finland. We shall see in a later lesson that Charles was not the only conqueror to meet his doom in a Russian campaign.

Peter had given Russia the foundations of power and civilization; she had risen on the ruins of Sweden. He continued his schemes of reform, but in 1711 his work was interrupted by war with Turkey. In this campaign he and his army were only saved from destruction by the prudent counsel of his wife, the Empress Catherine. She was but a servant maid when she attracted the notice of the Tsar. Just before setting out for Turkey he privately acknowledged her as his wife, and she shared all the fatigues and hardships and dangers of the campaign with unfailing good humour. When the Russian army, worn out with long marches and cut off from supplies of food and water, was surrounded by the Turks, and disaster seemed to be its lot, Catherine sent her jewels and all the money which she could collect to the Grand Vizier, with an offer of peace. The offer was accepted, and when Peter returned home he publicly married her.

In 1716 she accompanied him on a second European journey, in the course of which he visited Amsterdam, Copenhagen, and Paris, and secured the services of many skilled artisans as teachers of his people. On his return he continued his work of civilization, but found that many of the nobles who disliked reform had begun to hatch plots against him. Amongst those who opposed his "Westernizing" of Russia was his own son and heir, Alexis, who frankly preferred the old to the new Russia. Peter saw with bitterness that his life-work would probably be undone by his successor. For years he strove to win Alexis from his reactionary views and his idle and dissolute life, and, when he failed, ordered him to retire to a monastery. Instead of doing so, Alexis fled to Germany, where he remained concealed for a time. At length he was discovered, brought back to Russia, tried for treason, and condemned to death. It is said that he was tortured in prison until he died, and that Peter presided over the execution of his son. The whole story is a black blot on Peter's character.

For seven years longer Peter continued to reign. He died in 1725, at the age of fifty-three, worn out by hard work and anxiety. Semi-barbarian as he was, and many as were his faults of character, he did a great work for his land, and was entirely deserving of that gratitude which he never received. After his death there was a reaction, and for a time it seemed as though Russia would revert to barbarism. The old Russian party triumphed, but with the reigns of Anna Ivanovna and

THE TSAR PETER THE GREAT AND HIS SON ALEXIS.

Elizabeth (1730–62) a return was made to the policy of Peter the Great, and Russia gradually took her place as a European Power.

She did not, however, become a great Power until the days of Catherine II., a German princess, who had married the Tsarevitch Peter, afterwards Peter III. She was a woman of great ability, but was thoroughly unscrupulous, and wholly without shame. Her husband succeeded to the throne in 1762; but before he could be crowned she brought about his overthrow, and was herself crowned and proclaimed as sole monarch of Russia. On the day following her coronation Peter signed a paper giving up his throne. Within a week he was dead—strangled, it is said, by command of his German wife.

Though Catherine won her throne by murder, she was undoubtedly a powerful sovereign, who ruled with great skill, and extended the dominion and civilization of her adopted country. She carried on with zeal the work of Peter the Great, and under her sway Russian education, industry, and commerce were greatly advanced. Her ruling passion was to destroy Poland and to overcome Turkey. We shall see in the next lesson how she and her fellow-robbers managed to deal a death-blow to Poland.

In the war with Turkey, which she carried on from 1768 to 1774, she won the chief ports on the Sea of Azov, and another port at the mouth of the Dnieper, and thus secured for Russia the free navigation of the Black Sea. She had already won the territory between the Don, the Volga, and the Caucasus, and had obtained an outlet into Asia. It is important to note that, by the treaty which she made with the Turks in 1774, Russia was given the right to protect the Greek religion and its churches in Turkey. We shall see in a later lesson that by virtue of this treaty Russia interfered in the internal affairs of the Balkan peninsula, and carved out Christian states from Moslem territory.

In 1787 the war with Turkey was renewed, and Catherine entered the fortress of Kherson, which she had built on the Dnieper, under a triumphal arch bearing the inscription, " This way to Byzantium." The skill and courage of her general, Suvarov, enabled her to win the mouths of the Danube; and by the Peace of Jassy, in 1792, the Dniester became the boundary between the Russian and Turkish empires.

*Read:* "Peter the Great," in *Torch-Bearers of History,* Vol. II. (Nelson).

## 35. THE RISE OF PRUSSIA.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: George I.** (1714); **George II.** (1727); **George III.** (1760).]

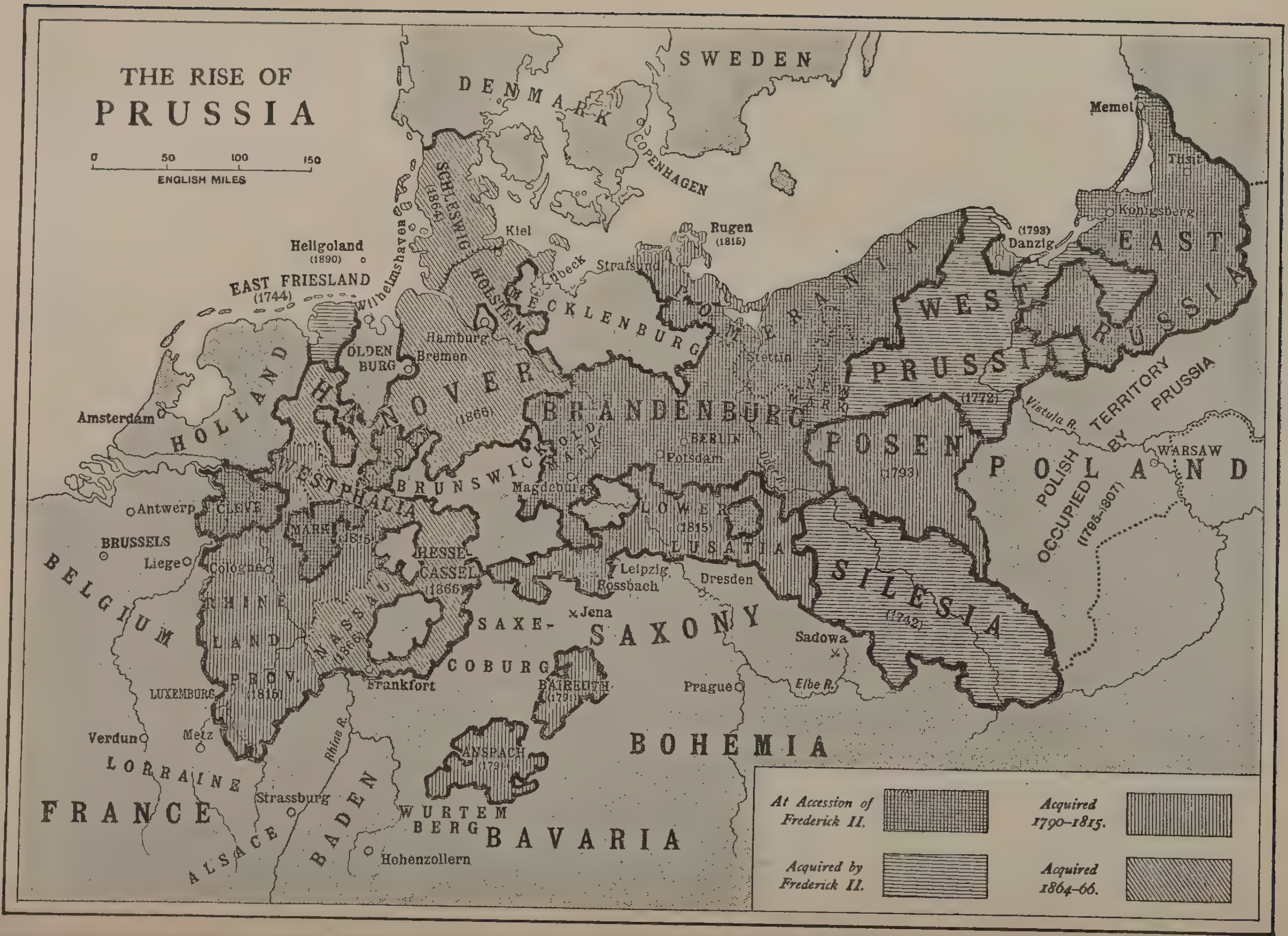
If you examine a map of Germany, you will see in the middle of the North German plain the city of Berlin, the capital of the German Empire. Round about Berlin, in the valleys of the Middle Oder, its tributary the Warthe, and also in the valley of the Elbe, you see the Mark of Brandenburg. I have already told you how it passed into the hands of the Hohenzollerns. It was by no means a land flowing with milk and honey. Parts of it were marshy or heavily wooded, and in many places the land was so thickly covered with sand that it was known as the "Sandbox of the Holy Roman Empire." Thin crops of rye and oats alone could be raised on the thankless soil.

The Mark of Brandenburg was the nucleus of Prussia as we know it to-day. In the time of Luther the Elector of Brandenburg and his people became Protestant, and in the early seventeenth century he fell heir to Cleve, in the extreme west of Germany, and to the duchy of Prussia, in the extreme east. The more important of these territories was the duchy of Prussia. In the Middle Ages the name was given to all the stretch of land covered with lakes and forests which lies south of the Baltic on both sides of the Lower Vistula. In the thirteenth century it was conquered by the Teutonic Knights, who Christianized its Slav heathen inhabitants. Two centuries later the knights were overcome by the King of Poland, who added the western part to his own dominions, and gave back the eastern part to the knights, who were to hold it as his vassals.

In the time of Luther the knights became Protestant, and the order was broken up. At the time, a Hohenzollern was grand master of the order, and he seized the country and called himself duke. His line failed in 1618, and the duchy of Prussia, now known as East Prussia, descended to his relative the Elector of Brandenburg. East Prussia, you will observe, was the first considerable addition made to the Mark, and this accounts for the affection with which the Hohenzollerns regard it. You will remember that at the outset of the Great War the Russians invaded this sacred province and overran it. The Russians knew that they were touching the Kaiser William in his most tender spot, and that he would not delay to send an army to drive them out. They thus were able to draw off some of the pressure from the Allies in the West.

The Hohenzollern prince who really founded the greatness of his house was Frederick William, who began to reign in the year 1640, and is known as the " Great Elector." He was an able, cautious, unscrupulous man; and by intervening in wars when it was safe to do so, and by changing sides whenever he saw an advantage to be gained, he managed to add several smaller states to his own. At first all his possessions were independent of each other, but he united them and turned them into one under his own absolute rule. Frederick William has always been regarded by his successors as a typical Prussian ruler. He had the same concern for his army, the same faithlessness in regard to his promises, the same belief that he was the personal friend of the Almighty, the same disregard of the wishes of his subjects, and the same care for their material prosperity which mark his descendant the Kaiser William.

In 1655, when war broke out between Sweden and Poland, Frederick William joined the Swedes, and helped them to win a battle. As a reward for his services they recognized the independence of East Prussia, which hitherto had been under the overlordship of the Polish king. When, however, Denmark made war on Sweden, Frederick William allied him-



THE RISE OF PRUSSIA

self with the Poles, and managed to get the Polish king to give up the overlordship of East Prussia and acknowledge him as full sovereign.

He greatly coveted Pomerania, which stretches along the Baltic coast to the north of Berlin, and in order to obtain it went to the assistance of Holland when she was attacked in 1672 by Louis XIV. In order to drive the elector back to his homeland, Louis persuaded the Swedes to invade Brandenburg; whereupon Frederick William returned home post haste, and surprised the invaders, whom he utterly defeated. This victory made the military reputation of Brandenburg, which was further increased when the Swedes were driven out of Pomerania. When peace was made the elector hoped to possess himself of that province; but Louis XIV. would not hear of it, and Frederick William was forced to give it back to Sweden.

The Great Elector was succeeded by his son Frederick, who was very anxious to bear the title of king. He attained the great object of his life in the year 1700; but being a spendthrift and a lover of empty display, he did nothing to advance the interests of his country. After him reigned another Frederick William, who had some talent, and looked after the business of his kingdom very well, but was a rough, coarse fellow. Nevertheless, he was the first Prussian king to set himself the task of making his kingdom strong enough to take its place among the European powers. Carlyle calls him the "drill-sergeant of the Prussian nation."

This Frederick William stinted himself and his family of food and clothing in order to keep up an army of sixty thousand men, who, by the discipline of the corporal's cane, were made to drill more perfectly than any other soldiers in Europe. Frederick William had not only a very strong army compared with the size of his kingdom, but, to prepare for any war that might come, he filled his treasure chests with every shilling that he could save. One strange fancy of his was to possess a brigade of giants, and his agents scoured the countries of Europe to find big men. It is said that he paid £1,200 for an Irishman who was more than seven feet high. These Potsdam giants, as they were called, were his passion; he hoarded his money like a miser on most things, but spent it lavishly on buying tall men for his Guards.

He was sturdy and hard-working but most tyrannical, not only to his subjects but to the members of his family as well. Macaulay tells us that his son, Frederick, one of the most remarkable men who ever lived, was treated by his father worse than Oliver Twist in the workhouse and Smike at Dotheboys Hall. The unhappy boy, driven to despair by harsh treatment, tried to run away to the court of his uncle, George II. of England. At this the old tyrant, his father, was roused to frenzy. As the lad was an officer, he had committed the basest crime that the king could imagine—he had deserted. A young lieutenant who tried to get him out of the clutches of his father was seized, and the king forced his son to look on while this friend was hanged. The boy himself would have been shot had not the kings of Sweden and Poland and the Emperor Charles VI. pleaded for his life. As it was, he was sent to prison; but in less than a fortnight he was ready to promise amendment for the future. He was released from prison, but for some time was not restored to his old position in the army.

When he became a man, he was allowed to set up a home of his own. He married, and amused himself in his country retreat by laying out gardens and growing rare fruit and flowers. The friends whom he gathered around him were all French, and amongst them he set up a brotherhood called the Order of Bayard, after the name of the great French knight who was "without fear and without reproach"—the noblest hero of the Middle Ages.

Early in the year 1740 "Old Fritz" lay on his death-bed, and was able to say, as he put his arms round the prince's neck, that he was content to die, knowing that he was leaving behind him so worthy a son and successor. Thus Frederick became King of Prussia in his twenty-eighth year. His subjects thought he would prove an easy-going king; but imagine their surprise when he cried, "No more of these fooleries," and flung himself into the work of preparing for war.

A few months after he came to the throne the Emperor

Charles VI. died, with no son to succeed him. He left his great dominions—Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, parts of the Netherlands, and parts of North Italy—to his daughter, Maria Theresa, and before his death persuaded the sovereigns of Europe to support her as empress. Amongst those who did so was Frederick's father, and, of course, the promise was binding on the son. But Frederick tore up "the scrap of paper," and shortly after Maria ascended her throne suddenly assembled his army and marched at its head into her country. He plunged Europe into a long and terrible war, simply because he was eager to increase his power and make people talk about him. He once said, "He is a fool, and that nation is a fool, which, having the power to strike his enemy unawares, does not strike, and strike his deadliest."

It was the depth of winter when Frederick set his armies in motion. Poor Maria Theresa was taken unawares; town after town yielded, until, before the end of January 1741, Frederick was master of Silesia. Then the sovereigns of Spain, France, Savoy, Bavaria, and Saxony followed his example, and soon all Europe was in arms. In the following year Maria Theresa made peace with Frederick, her most formidable foe, and gave up to him practically the whole of Silesia. She continued the war against her other enemies, and was joined by England and Holland. The French were driven back, Bavaria was conquered, and South Germany overrun. At the moment when it seemed likely that Maria would become mistress of Germany Frederick took the field once more, and again she was forced to make peace. Finally, in 1748, when all parties were tired of fighting, the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was signed, and Maria Theresa was acknowledged as lawful sovereign of Austria.

Frederick's wars, however, were not yet over. Maria Theresa was still his bitter enemy, and she was bent on winning back Silesia. Her very clever Minister, Kaunitz, managed to bring about an alliance between Austria and France. When this happened Britain was thrown into opposition, for she had already begun a great contest for colonial power with France. The upshot was that Britain joined Prussia. Maria Theresa had not only the support of France, but of Russia, Sweden, and Saxony as well.

I cannot in these pages fully describe the many battles of the next seven years. Frederick gained many victories, chiefly by making catlike leaps before his enemies expected an attack. By a manœuvre called the "diagonal march," his ruthlessly trained armies, though smaller in numbers, often outflanked their enemies and threw them into confusion. Frederick's greatest victory was obtained over the French at Rossbach in 1757. But he had many defeats too, and more than once was so reduced to despair that he contemplated suicide. He would have been hopelessly beaten but for the men and money sent him by Chatham, the great British statesman under King George II. Britain also fought France at sea and abroad, and it was in those days that Clive founded our Indian Empire by the victory of Plassey, and Wolfe won Canada at Quebec.

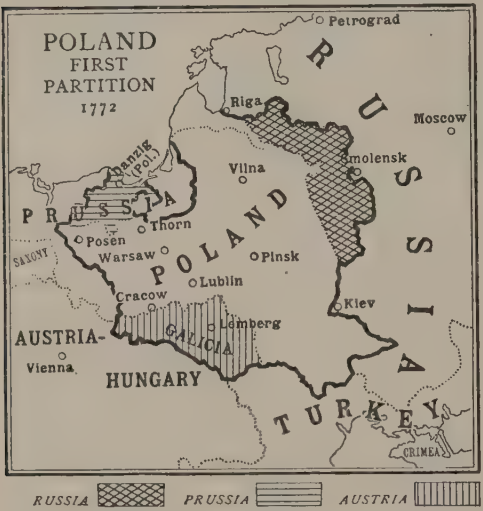
For seven years Frederick had to hold his ground against the three great military powers of the time. In the year 1761 the new King of Britain, George III., refused to help him any further, and it seemed likely that he would be forced to give up the struggle for lack of means to carry it on. But fortune favoured him: the new Emperor of Russia, Peter III., drew off his troops, and thus Frederick was freed from one of his powerful enemies. One by one his other foes dropped off, and in 1763 peace was made.

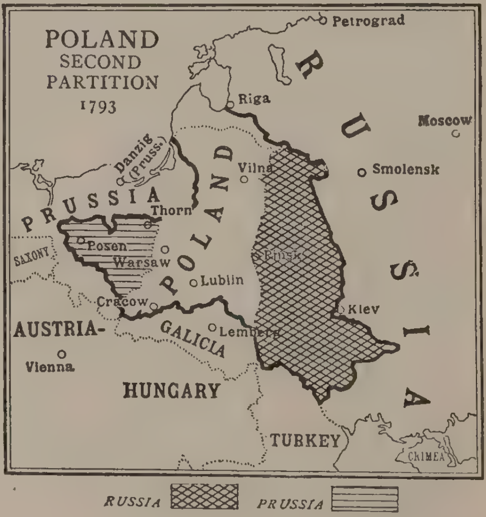
The end of the war found the Prussian kingdom in a terrible condition. Thereafter Frederick devoted himself to building up his country anew. Before his death he had increased his territories to an area of 75,000 square miles, and his people numbered 5,500,000. He had made Prussia great; but he had done it by cunning and violence, and at the cost of untold misery and suffering.

Before I conclude the story of Frederick the Great, I must tell you how he, Catherine of Russia, and Maria Theresa combined in one of the grossest acts of robbery known to history. By the year 1772 Poland had fallen into anarchy. Her nobles quarrelled fiercely amongst themselves, and the land was torn with disunion and strife. The rulers of Russia, Austria,

FREDERICK THE GREAT.

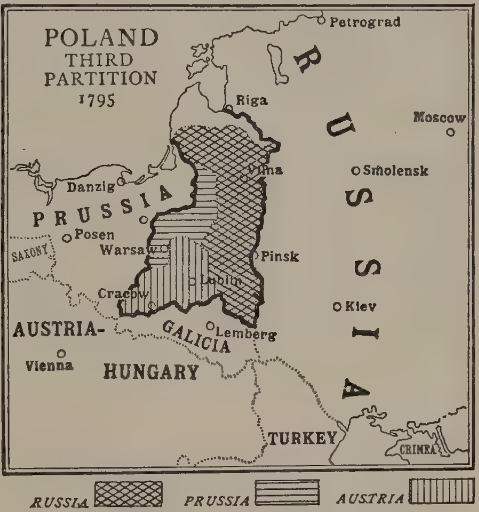
and Prussia now made an agreement by which they were to seize part of Poland. This was done, and the three sovereigns, like robbers in a cave, divided the spoils between them. Frederick took a big slice, and so did Russia, while Austria received Galicia. This was the first mouthful. In 1793, Prussia and Russia again took bites of Polish territory. Kosciusko, the Polish general, marched on Warsaw and compelled the Russians to raise the siege; but two years later Suvorov captured the city. Stanislaus, the last Polish king, resigned his crown on April 25, 1795, and the final partition of Poland took place. The three Powers gobbled up all that was left of the country. Austria received Cracow, with the country between the Pilica, the Vistula, and the Bug; Prussia took Warsaw with the territory as far as the Niemen; the rest went to Russia. In April 1798 Stanislaus died at Petrograd.





On that fatal day in 1796 when the great patriot Kosciusko, after gallantly defending Warsaw for two months, was made prisoner, the last hope of Poland's independence vanished. With the rearrangement of

Polish territory after the fall of Napoleon, I shall deal in a later chapter. (See p. 294.) The Poles have long lost their kingdom, but still they hope and pray for its restoration. At the opening of the Great War the Tsar of Russia held out promises that the old kingdom should be set up again under his protection, and later on the Central Powers made similar proposals to the Poles. In February 1918 the Russian Government accepted Germany's peace terms, by which the whole of Russian Poland passed into the hands of the Central Powers.



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*Read:* "Frederick the Great as a Boy," in *Pen Portraits from Carlyle* (Nelson).

## 36. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

[**Contemporary British Sovereign: George III.** (1760).]

Louis XIV. died in the year 1715, leaving "to his infant successor a famished and miserable people, a beaten and humbled army, provinces turned into deserts, factions dividing the court, an immense debt, and an empty treasury." To restore her fallen fortunes, France needed kings of an heroic mould. Unhappily, Louis XV., who became king in deed as well as in name in the year 1723, was an idle, self-indulgent fellow, without any sense of duty or talent for government. He wasted the substance of his people in vicious extravagance.

Two great wars, the War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War, occupied fourteen years of his reign. The

Seven Years' War was largely a struggle between France and Britain for colonial power in America and in India. At first it went against Britain, and disaster followed disaster. A British fleet failed against the French off Minorca (1756), and its admiral, Byng, was shot on his own quarter-deck, "to encourage the others," according to Voltaire, the French philosopher and wit. When, however, Chatham became responsible for the conduct of the war, a great change came over the spirit of the dream. His policy was to keep France busily employed in European warfare while he tore from her grasp her great dominions in India and America. He paid Frederick, as you know, large sums of money to oppose the French on European battlefields while British forces operated on and beyond the seas. "I am conquering Canada," he said, "on the plains of Germany." When the war ended, in 1763, France had lost not only Canada but India as well.

Louis XV. died in 1774, and was succeeded by his grandson, Louis XVI., a weak, stupid, but well-meaning man, in whose reign occurred the greatest upheaval of all history down to the opening of the Great War. The full story of the French Revolution must be sought elsewhere; here I can only deal with it in outline.

France, in the age of Louis XIV., the "Grand Monarch," was ruled by an absolute king, and the country groaned under the most oppressive feudal system ever known. The nobles, who with their families numbered about 140,000, filled all the chief offices of state, enjoyed all the honours, and owned most of the property in the country, yet paid next to no taxes; the clergy, perhaps another 140,000 in number, were also exempt; while the peasants, who were little better than serfs, were forced to labour on the roads and on their lords' estates, and pay taxes which amounted to half the produce of their fields. As a consequence they were terribly poor; some of them were reduced to feeding on boiled nettles. Insufficient and unwholesome food led to the outbreak of strange diseases, and deaths from cold and starvation were common. While the peasants were struggling for a mouthful of bread, a swarm of greedy officials preyed on the land like locusts, and the king in his palace at Versailles lived a life of costly pomp and glittering idleness.

While these awful contrasts were before men's eyes, certain advanced thinkers began to pour scorn on the pretensions of the governing classes, and to preach the doctrine of the "rights of man." Ideas of liberty and equality were in the air, and they gained much ground after the establishment of a republic in the United States. Though the system of government was becoming more merciful under Louis XVI., the revolt broke out in his reign. He suffered for the sins of his fathers. Because of war debts, court extravagance, and badly arranged taxation, France was hopelessly bankrupt; and in order to devise new methods of raising money Louis was obliged, in May 1789, to appeal to the nation. He called together the States-General, which had not been convoked since the year 1614.

The States-General was composed of the elected representatives of the three orders or estates—the clergy, the nobles, and the commons. When it met a dispute began as to which estate should be supreme. At the end of a month's discussion the "Third Estate," or commons, boldly seized the reins of government, and proclaimed itself the National Assembly. At once there was intense excitement all over France, and great things were expected. The Assembly included many intelligent and patriotic men, who wished to set up a new constitution in an orderly fashion. This was by no means pleasing to the mob, which had no patience with the slow procedure that was necessary. Further, the members of the Assembly began to dispute amongst themselves. You must remember that, as the French people had been debarred from all share in the work of government, few of them had any experience of public affairs to guide them in such a crisis.

On 14th July, a day still observed as the national *fête* day, Paris rose, and some of the troops joined the people. The Bastille, or State prison, was stormed, the prisoners were released, and the garrison slain. All over the country the peasants took up arms, murdered the nobles, and burned their castles. The king was powerless to interfere, and the Assembly, backed by the mob, passed laws which swept away all the privileges of the nobles and the rights of the Church. Before long the king and his family tried to escape from the country in secret; but they were discovered, brought back, and treated as prisoners. Meanwhile large numbers of the nobles had sought refuge abroad, and were urging foreign governments to declare war on France. When the German sovereigns threatened invasion, the French declared war on Austria and Prussia. The old flag of the Bourbon monarchy, white with silver lilies, gave place to the blue, white, and red of the Tricolour; and the "Marseillaise," now the national anthem of France, became the hymn of the Revolution.

The leaders of the people grew more and more violent, and in the autumn of 1792 the king was deposed and a republic set up. On January 21, 1793, Louis was executed, and a few months later his wife suffered the same fate. A thrill of horror ran through the courts of Europe, and in the next month Britain declared war on France. Hostilities could no longer be safely delayed. The French had taken possession of Belgium, and were inciting the "republicans of England" to rise against the Government. Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Austria, and Prussia now leagued themselves against France, and in February 1793 began that war which, with two short intervals, lasted until the Allies entered Paris on July 7, 1815. In France the revolutionary fever grew apace. In the summer of 1793, during the awful "Reign of Terror," no fewer than fourteen hundred persons were executed in six weeks, and some of the most bloodthirsty scenes in all history took place.

During this terrible time army after army was being raised, though the Government had scarcely the money to feed and clothe the soldiers. These armies of the republic showed wonderful spirit and energy, while the Allies were sluggish and disunited. Consequently the French were able to carry the war into the enemy's country. Holland was conquered, and then Prussia and Spain made peace with France, leaving Britain and Austria to carry on the war. Meanwhile the government of France, after several changes, had passed into the hands of a body of five persons called the "Directory." Twice Britain attempted to make peace with this body, but with no success. At the end of the year 1795 France held the upper hand in Europe.

Out of the turmoil of the time arose Napoleon Bonaparte, the greatest war lord that the world has known. He was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, in 1769, at the time when the American colonists were beginning to rise against the British Government. In the first year of American independence he was a "gentleman cadet" at the military school of Paris. Here he was chiefly noteworthy as a silent, haughty lad, full of self-will and of great ambition. He was studious, and was very fond of mathematics and geography; but his abilities were not striking. None of his teachers prophesied a brilliant future for him.

In 1785 he became a lieutenant of artillery, and eight years later we find him, as a zealous Republican, in command of the artillery which was to besiege the naval port of Toulon, then in possession of the British, who had been called in by the Royalist inhabitants. Napoleon conducted the siege with such skill that the British were forced to evacuate the port; not, however, without burning the French fleet which lay in the harbour, and destroying the arsenal.

Napoleon rose rapidly in the service of "the Republic." In 1796 we find him a general in command of the Army of Italy, and at the beginning of his extraordinary career. At this time Austria was the chief continental enemy of the French people, and as she held possessions in Italy, Napoleon was sent to attack them. "Soldiers," said he, "you are naked and ill-fed; I will lead you into the most fruitful plains in the world. Rich provinces and great cities shall be in your power. There you will find honour and fame and wealth!"

From the first his genius as a commander shone forth. In two campaigns he completely conquered the Austrian and Sardinian dominions in the valley of the Po, and was acclaimed on all hands as the greatest general of the Republic. As he rose in fame and influence, new vistas opened before him, and he soon perceived that the highest position in the State was his to grasp.

In May 1797 he advanced into Austria itself, and carried all before him. When he was within eighty miles of Vienna the emperor begged for peace, and obtained it at the price of Belgium and Lombardy. Prussia now abandoned the Allies; Holland and Spain had already purchased peace by promising the Republic the use of their navies. Great Britain was thus left alone to face France, Holland, and Spain. Her fleets were busy blockading the great naval ports of Texel, Brest, Ferrol, Cadiz, Cartagena, and Toulon in order to keep the ships in those harbours from putting to sea.

In December 1796 a feeble and vain attempt was made to invade Ireland and South Wales. A more determined effort in the following year was foiled when Admiral Jervis fell in with the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent and scattered it. A third invasion project was brought to naught by the victory of Admiral Duncan, who captured twelve Dutch men-of-war off Camperdown.

Meanwhile what was Napoleon doing? He returned from Italy to Paris, and discovered that France was ready for still greater military adventures, and especially for any campaign which would bring Britain to her knees. He was now entrusted with an army which was to take the first step in winning back India.

Napoleon considered Egypt the key to India, and believed that whoever possessed it was bound, sooner or later, to be master of the great peninsula. Accordingly, in May 1798, he sailed from Toulon with a fleet and transports conveying twenty-eight thousand troops, and a staff of professors and scientific men who were to investigate the ancient wonders of Egypt. On the way Malta was seized, and on 2nd July the port of Alexandria was captured. Then began a series of French successes, and by the end of the month Egypt was in Napoleon's hands.

At this time the great British admiral, Nelson, was scouring the Mediterranean, with orders to sink, burn, or destroy the French fleet. After a long and anxious quest he discovered it at anchor in Aboukir Bay on the evening of August 1, 1798. In a battle which raged far into the night the French fleet was destroyed. Out of thirteen ships of the line only two escaped. Napoleon showed no dismay at this disaster, and now resolved to conquer Syria. He crossed the desert, and drove the Turks out of the southern part of the land. Before the walls of Acre, however, his victorious march was checked. The Turks within, and British ships outside, baffled his best efforts. The ships were under the command of Sir Sidney Smith, and in later years Napoleon said, " That man made me miss my destiny." But for the British admiral he would have been Emperor of the East. As it was, he was forced to raise the siege and return to Egypt.

Meanwhile Austria and Russia, believing that Napoleon's career was now at an end, had joined Britain, and the French armies had suffered some reverses. Learning this disturbing news from a bundle of newspapers which Sir Sidney Smith had sent into his lines, Napoleon left his army in Egypt and returned to Paris, where his friends arranged a revolution. On December 24, 1799, a new French constitution was proclaimed, and shortly afterwards Napoleon became First Consul. He took up his abode in the Tuileries, and was now on the direct highroad to that lofty position which he meant to attain.

*Read : A Tale of Two Cities,* by Charles Dickens (Nelson).

## 37. NAPOLEON—THE "TERROR OF EUROPE."

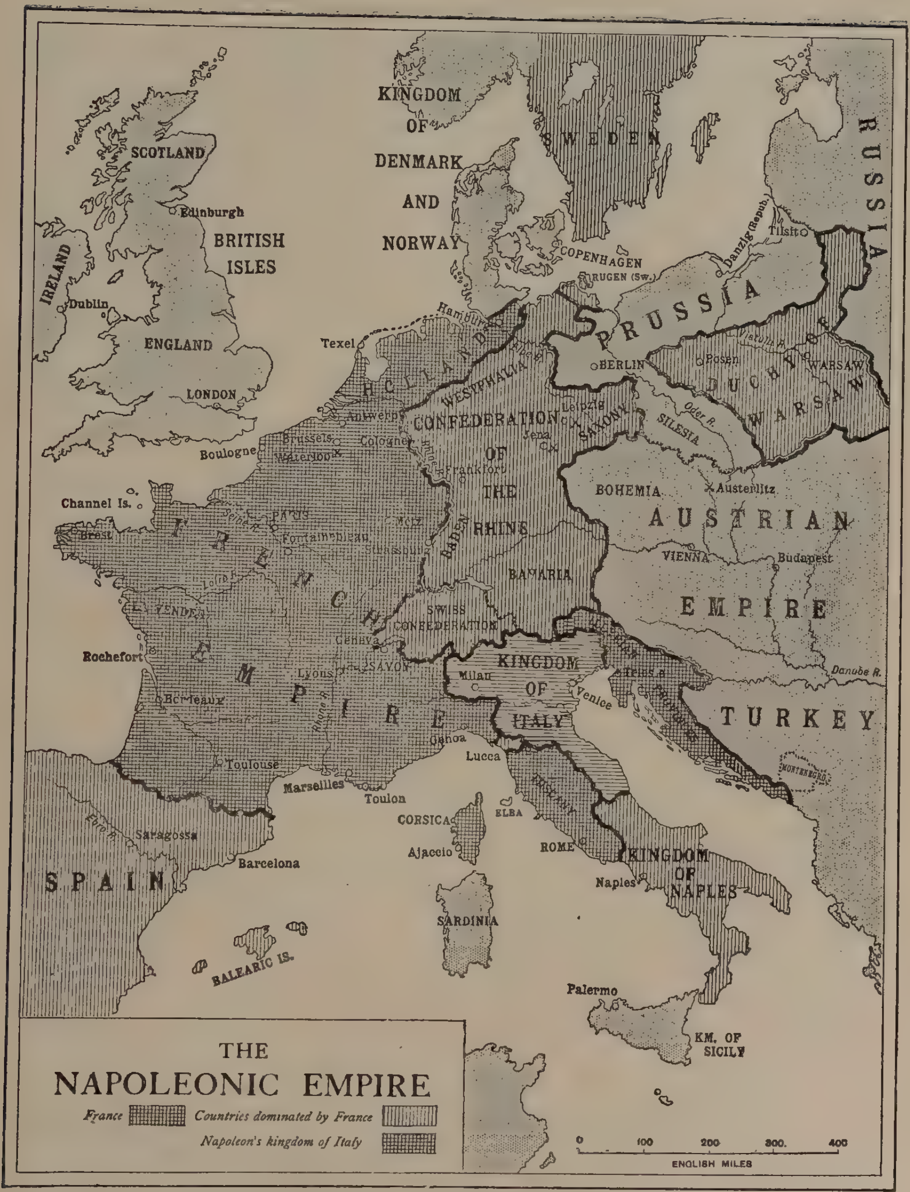
[**Contemporary British Sovereign : George III.** (1760).]

When Napoleon became First Consul he pledged his word to save France from her host of enemies, and in May 1800 he began the formidable task. Crossing the Great St. Bernard Pass, never before traversed by a large army, he succeeded in planting himself in the rear of the Austrians, and at the battle of Marengo achieved a brilliant victory. Later in the year the French general Moreau crushed another Austrian army at Hohenlinden, and then Austria sued for peace.

In 1799 the Tsar Paul, who succeeded Catherine on the throne of Russia, had sent an army under Suvarov to Italy, Now he suddenly recalled his troops. From hatred of the Corsican he had passed to admiration, and he was now ready to abandon the Allies. Thus Britain was once more left to wage war single-handed against the "Terror of Europe." Indeed, it seemed likely that she would have to fight Russia, Sweden, and Denmark as well; for Napoleon had formed a league of these powers. His idea was to subdue Britain by striking at her trade. Russia, Denmark, and Sweden were to mass their fleets and close all their ports against British ships. But before they could unite, a British fleet, under Sir Hyde Parker and Lord Nelson, was sent to Copenhagen. Nelson's division attacked, and after a severe battle (April 2, 1801) most of the Danish ships were silenced; but the shore batteries continued firing across them, and to save the lives of the men Nelson sent a letter to the Prince of Denmark, the result of which was an armistice. Soon afterwards Denmark cut herself adrift from the alliance. A little later the Tsar Paul was murdered, and his successor, Alexander, proved more friendly to Britain. Meanwhile the French army had been driven out of Egypt.

Napoleon had failed in all his attacks on the stubborn islanders, and he was ready for a breathing space which would enable him to recruit his armies and build up a navy powerful enough to beat Britain. Accordingly peace was signed at Amiens (March 27, 1802). By this peace Great Britain restored all the colonial conquests which she had made during the war, except Ceylon and Trinidad. "It was a peace," said Sheridan, "that nobody was proud of, but everybody was glad of." Napoleon had carried off all the advantages.

Though peace had been signed, relations between Britain and Napoleon were very strained, and it was clear that the war would be renewed before long. Meanwhile Napoleon set up a republic in Switzerland, and united several small states of Italy into another republic. Both of these republics were under his control and protection. A quarrel about Malta was sufficient to rekindle the embers of strife, and in May 1803 Britain and France were once more at war. From June to September of that year Napoleon waited with 100,000 men



NAPOLEON'S EMPIRE AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT.

(Compare with map of Charlemagne's Empire. See p. 127.)

and a huge flotilla of flat-bottomed boats for a favourable opportunity to invade England. He needed six hours' command of the Channel; but thanks to the British fleet, he never obtained it, and finally abandoned the project.

On May 18, 1804, Napoleon put an end to the French Republic, and crowned himself Emperor of the French. He now planned a great scheme for turning all Europe into one vast empire, with kings and princes over the various nations, and himself at the head of all. He sent an army into Hanover and overran it; but Prussia did not interfere, because she hoped that Napoleon would hand that state over to her if she remained quiet. Great Britain now persuaded Austria, Russia, and Sweden to join together against France; but the Prussian king, Frederick William III., would not unite with them. He allowed Napoleon to do as he pleased in Germany, because he hoped that Austria would be beaten, and that the conqueror would reward him with some of the spoils. The emperors of Austria and Russia begged him to desert Napoleon and join them; but he would not listen to their arguments. Napoleon now invaded Austria, and won a series of victories. In the "Battle of the Emperors," at Austerlitz, in Moravia (December 2, 1805), he overthrew the Austrians and Russians. The Austrian Empire was at his feet, and Frederick William received his reward: Hanover was handed over to him.

Now, though by this victory Napoleon became master of all Europe except Great Britain, his downfall had actually begun. Forty-three days before Austerlitz the combined fleets of France and Spain had been destroyed by Lord Nelson at the Battle of Trafalgar (October 21, 1805). Nelson had struck the blow that was to bring Napoleon to his knees ten years later. At Trafalgar he lost his sea power, and no victories on land could avert his final doom.

In the next year sixteen of the German princes joined him; their states were grouped together as the Confederation of the Rhine. He turned many of the provinces which he had won into kingdoms, and placed his relatives and his generals on their thrones. Poland was reconstituted as the Duchy of Warsaw. As for Prussia, he had no respect for her, and very soon showed that he was going to seize her too. Louisa, the beautiful Queen of Prussia, had alone seen what the end of her country would be, and had begged the king to draw the sword against the conqueror. When Napoleon took one of the Prussian fortresses she again besought her husband to fight. The Emperor of Russia visited Frederick William, and joined his entreaties to hers; and at last, in 1806, he took the field against the great war lord.

Napoleon struck swiftly. At Jena, on the left bank of the Saale, he held the Prussians in check till his cavalry came up, and when they dashed down on the foe all was over. The Prussian horse and foot fled in panic; twenty thousand Prussians were killed or captured; three hundred guns and sixty standards were taken. After the victory Napoleon treated the Prussians very harshly. He insulted the queen, and told the nobles that he would make them beg their bread. The whole country was quickly subdued, and Prussia was forced to pay an indemnity of some millions of money. Then the conquered states were divided into four parts, over which he set commanders. The Holy Roman Empire had now been destroyed, and the emperor, Francis II. of Austria, recognized the fact. He at once resigned the imperial crown, which had long been a shadow, and the empire which Charles the Great had founded in the ninth century finally disappeared.

Leaving sixty thousand Frenchmen to hold down beaten Prussia, Napoleon now turned on Russia, and in February 1807 marched 100,000 men into Poland, where he met the Russian army and the remnants of the Prussian army. On a snow-clad field at Eylau he fought a battle during the short hours of a winter day. The slaughter was horrible, but the result was indecisive. In the following June the armies met again at Friedland, and this time Napoleon was victorious. A week later he and the Tsar met on a raft moored on the river Niemen, and made plans for the greatest scheme of robbery ever known to history—they agreed to divide Europe between them.

Napoleon was now supreme. In twelve years he had risen from an obscure officer of artillery to be dictator of all Europe. Britain alone of European nations stood against him. He could not attack her with the sword, but he could strike at her commerce. By means of what are known as the " Berlin Decrees " he forbade any continental country to trade with Great Britain. No British ship was to be allowed to approach the shore of any European country. The vastest " boycott " ever contemplated was to be enforced.

The British replied by forbidding neutral states to trade with any countries which were not allowed to trade with Britain, and by blockading the ports of France and her allies. This meant that there was to be no British trade with the Continent at all. At that time Britain was the greatest manufacturing country of the world, and her colonies supplied most of the sugar, coffee, tea, pepper, and spices then used in Europe. These things continental peoples would have in spite of all Napoleon's decrees. The consequence was that smuggling became rife, and that British manufactures and colonial produce crept into all the continental countries, though the inhabitants had to pay exorbitant prices for them.

The little kingdom of Portugal was almost the last state which refused to join Napoleon. Its resistance gave him an excuse to send French troops into Spain, to depose the Spanish king, and to set his own brother Joseph on the throne. Thus the whole Peninsula passed into his power. These high-handed actions roused the nations to another struggle. An insurrection broke out in Spain and Portugal which even Napoleon could not stamp out. The British Government eagerly seized the opportunity of waging war against him on land. Arms and money were sent to the Spaniards, and on August 1, 1808, an army was landed in Portugal. Thus began the Peninsular War.

I need not tell you the story of this struggle ; it belongs to British history. Our small forces were commanded by Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, and with them he beat Napoleon's generals one after another. With never more than fifty thousand British soldiers, aided by Portuguese and Spanish levies, he opposed and defeated 200,000 of the finest troops in the world. The Spanish *guerillas*, or irregulars, made all the roads unsafe for French

NAPOLEON AT MOSCOW.

(*After the picture by Verestchagin.*)

transport, while Wellington had behind him the sea and the British fleet.

After the British victory of Talavera, in April 1809, Napoleon determined to "drive the leopards into the sea." He sent Massena, the greatest of his marshals, to Spain with a huge army, and Wellington was obliged to retreat into Portugal. He formed a strong camp to the north of Lisbon, and across the rugged country, for a distance of twenty-four miles, drew three lines of fortifications from the Tagus to the sea. Behind these "lines of Torres Vedras" he defied Massena's forces; and when all attempts to find a joint in his armour had failed, the French general was forced to withdraw, having lost twenty thousand men by sword and famine. Wellington followed him, and during the year 1811 there was almost continual fighting. At the end of it Wellington had made but little progress. He still continued the struggle with the utmost doggedness, and by May of the next year the tide was on the turn. Napoleon began to withdraw troops from Spain: relief had come from an unexpected quarter.

The Tsar Alexander was by this time tired of submitting to Napoleon, and, to show his defiance, opened his ports to trade with Britain. Napoleon was furious, and marched an army of 600,000 men towards the Russian frontier, which was crossed on June 23, 1812. The Russians did not attempt to fight; they fell back and lured him on, meanwhile wasting the country over which he had to pass. Soon the French found themselves short of food, and many of them died of hunger. Napoleon's line of march could be traced by the dead bodies of horses and men.

At last the Russians stood firm, and a great battle was fought at Borodino, some seventy miles from Moscow. One hundred thousand men lay dead or wounded on the field. But Napoleon was not checked. A week later his troops entered Moscow with shouts of delight. To their dismay, they found it as silent as a city of the dead. All the people had abandoned it; but before doing so had set fire to the place, and soon after the French marched in flames began to shoot up from a thousand different points.

The fire burned for five days, and the city lay in ruins. Then want of food and shelter compelled Napoleon to retreat. When he left Moscow his army had dwindled to about 100,000 men. The Cossacks hung upon their flanks and rear, and cut off all stragglers. Soon the snow began to fall, and the cruel Russian winter set in. Battalions perished daily of hunger and cold.

The starving, frost-bitten army now became a disorderly rabble. As Napoleon approached the river Beresina he learned that the Russians were waiting to oppose the passage. A battery of guns commanded the bridge, and when the French attempted to cross thousands of them were mowed down, and the bridge broke down under the struggling throng. Twelve thousand bodies were afterwards taken from the river and burned. A miserable, crushed remnant of twenty thousand men was all that struggled back to Germany. The Russian campaign had rung Napoleon's death-knell.

*Read:* "Nelson of the Nile," from Southey's *Life of Nelson* (Nelson).

## 38. THE "HUNDRED DAYS."

[**Contemporary British Sovereign: George III.** (1760).]

While the wretched remains of the "Grand Army" were struggling homewards, Napoleon crossed the plains of Lithuania, Poland, and Saxony, and reached France in safety, himself the herald of the terrible disaster which had overtaken him. This unexpected blow seemed to the enslaved peoples of Europe a sign that their hour of deliverance had arrived. Everywhere they began to take fresh courage, and ere long there was a general rising. Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden allied their forces, and Napoleon found himself beset on all sides. Berlin was still in the hands of the French; but during the years of Prussia's humiliation great improvements in the condition of the peasantry had been carried out by the statesman Baron von Stein, while Scharnhorst had secretly trained large numbers of soldiers by passing them rapidly through the army. So when the King of Prussia called upon his people to rise against the common enemy, every able-bodied man was ready to help him to throw off the hated yoke. When Napoleon heard the news he exclaimed, "Pah! Germans can't fight like Spaniards."

After the first outburst of dismay, France rallied to Napoleon as of old, and gave him the new army for which he asked. The terrible waste of life during the stormy years since the Revolution had pressed heavily on his people, and now half-grown lads of seventeen were called to the standards. They came willingly, and once more there was the old enthusiasm. Within six months Napoleon had 200,000 men ready to meet the Russians and Prussians on the Elbe. Many of the German princes were so terrified that they permitted their troops to join him. Prussia stood almost alone.

Her people, however, were filled with new hope and energy. The whole country became an armed camp. Youths scarcely more than boys, old men with gray hair, fathers of families, doctors, lawyers, tradesmen, even women in men's clothing, sprang to arms. Never was a nation more united. A huge army sprang into being; the Tsar sent help, and Napoleon was defied. Twice, however, he smote his new enemy in fierce battles, and Prussia was beaten to the ground.

The Emperor of Austria now tried to act as peacemaker, and sent Metternich, his great Minister, to talk over the matter with Napoleon. As soon as he arrived the French emperor said, "Well, Count Metternich, how much money has England bribed you with to play this part?" So saying, he threw his hat down on the floor, and waited to see if Metternich would stoop to pick it up. The Minister looked at the hat and then at Napoleon, but did not pick it up, thus clearly showing that he was unwilling to be Napoleon's lackey. Seeing this, Napoleon turned his back on him, and Metternich knew that war would be declared on Austria.

Napoleon had now to fight Prussia, Russia, Austria, and Sweden. You may be surprised to find Sweden amongst

Napoleon's foes, especially when you learn that the Prince of Sweden had been one of the French generals whom Napoleon had promoted to a throne. But he, too, was tired of being Napoleon's underling, and was eager to put an end to the great tyrant. Three armies were mustered—a northern army, a second in Bohemia, and a third in Silesia; the last being under the command of Marshal Blücher, of whom we shall hear again.

On August 23, 1813, a battle took place between the French and the northern army at Gross-Beeren, twelve miles south of Berlin. It was a battle of untrained men against a trained army. The Prussian peasants rushed on the foe, beat down whole battalions of them with the butt-ends of their muskets, and captured two thousand four hundred prisoners. Three days later Marshal Blücher also won a great victory in Silesia. The French general escaped almost alone, and hastened to Napoleon, who was then at Dresden. "Sire," he said, "your army no longer exists."

While his generals were thus suffering defeat, Napoleon himself gained a victory near Dresden. But when the Germans in his army learned that elsewhere his forces had been beaten, they began to waver. Napoleon knew that his end was drawing near, and for several days he could not make up his mind whether to fight or to return to France. At last he determined to fight, and then took place at Leipzig (October 16–19, 1813) what the Germans call the "Battle of the Nations," because soldiers of so many different nations were engaged in it. This battle was one of the longest and fiercest that had ever been fought up to that time. It lasted four days, and at the end of it Napoleon was defeated, and was forced to retreat to France. The "Terror of Europe" was beaten at last. The yoke of French bondage was broken, and many nations were free once more.

I can tell you the rest of Napoleon's story in a very few words. He struggled hard with the remnants of his army, but could not check the Allies, who were now invading France. On March 31, 1814, the Allies entered Paris, and the fickle populace received them with shouts of joy. Such a revulsion of feeling had taken place that a mob attempted to pull down a statue of Napoleon from the column on which it stood. A little later, Wellington, who had now crossed the Pyrenees, fought and won, near Toulouse, the last battle of the Peninsular War.

Napoleon's chief supporters now advised him to accept the terms of the Allies—namely, to abdicate the thrones of France and Italy, and become emperor of the little island of Elba. At first Napoleon foamed with rage, and attempted suicide; but when the storm had passed, he consented. For eight or nine months he lived on the island, and Europe thought that the last had been seen of him. But he was biding his time, watching and waiting for the chance to become Emperor of the French once more. The Bourbon king, Louis XVIII., who had been placed on the throne, was a selfish, stupid man, who soon disgusted both the army and the people. On March 7, 1815, while the representatives of the Powers were sitting at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe, a messenger arrived with the alarming news that Napoleon had broken loose. Six days previously he had landed on the Riviera.

Napoleon made a triumphal progress to Paris, which he reached on the 20th. The Bourbon Government melted away like snow before the summer sun. Everywhere Napoleon's old soldiers donned the cockade and flocked to his standard. Whole regiments deserted; the wonderful fascination which the emperor exercised upon his followers once more asserted itself. Marshal Ney, who had promised Louis to bring back the invader in an iron cage, fell a victim to the charm of his old chief as soon as he met him. The civil population of France had no desire for war, but the army was with Napoleon almost to a man. It was eager to embark once more upon that career of glory which his presence promised.

Louis and his friends fled from the country, and Napoleon reoccupied the Tuileries. During the "Hundred Days," from 13th March to 23rd June, he displayed all his old energy and resource. By 13th June he had nearly 200,000 men available for war. Meanwhile the Powers had not been idle. They bound themselves to raise a million men, and never to rest from their labours until Napoleon was finally crushed. In a few months an overwhelming force would be able to take the field; in the meantime the only troops which were able to meet him were those of the British and Prussian armies then in Belgium, commanded by Wellington and Blücher respectively.

I need not tell you the story of the great battle which ended Napoleon's career. You will remember that Napoleon's general Ney attacked the British at Quatre Bras, nineteen miles south-east of Brussels, and was beaten (16th June). On the same day, at Ligny, Napoleon defeated Blücher, but not so badly that he was unable to fight again. The Prussians were forced to retreat, and Wellington fell back on the field of Waterloo, where Blücher promised to meet him.

On 18th June one of the decisive battles of the world took place. All day the British held their ground, though they were fiercely assailed. Late in the afternoon, while the French were making their supreme efforts in the attack, Blücher and his Prussians came into action. Napoleon was now assailed on the flank by forty thousand men. At this juncture Wellington gave the word for his line of sorely-tried heroes to advance. In vain the French Guards rallied; they were swept away by fierce British charges. When darkness fell the whole French army was in flight, and the Prussians were pushing forward in hot pursuit. Before long the proud French army of the morning was almost annihilated.

Napoleon put spurs to his horse, and rode hard through the midsummer night to escape capture. He reached the coast, and tried in vain to escape to America. Fearing death at the hands of the Prussians, he surrendered to the captain of the British man-of-war *Bellerophon*. "Last scene of all, that ends this strange, eventful history," the Allies banished him to the lonely isle of St. Helena, where he languished in captivity until his death, on May 5, 1821. So completely had he then passed out of history that a great Frenchman said his death was not an event, only a piece of news.

Before we part from Napoleon we may learn a lesson from his fate. He was probably the greatest military genius who ever lived, and he made himself dictator of Europe. Though he succeeded for many years, his doom was sealed from the first. The nations of Europe will never permit one man, however great, to be their master. This is the lesson of Napoleon's career.

*Read:* Sir A. Conan Doyle's *The Great Shadow,* or the Waterloo chapters of Thackeray's *Vanity Fair.*

## 39. THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA, AND AFTERWARDS.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: George III.** (1760); **George IV.** (1820); **William IV.** (1830); **Victoria** (1837).]

You will remember that the Congress of Vienna was busy redrawing the map of Europe when news arrived that Napoleon had escaped from Elba. In the face of this terrible new danger the members ceased their quarrels, and the Tsar Alexander, placing his hand on the shoulder of the Duke of Wellington, said gravely, "It is your task to save Europe." You already know how the great deliverance was brought about. When Napoleon disappeared from the stage of history the Congress resumed its labours. It was a meeting of ambassadors who represented the various kings, princes, and governors of Europe; consequently it hated and abhorred all the revolutionary ideas which had led to the great upheaval. Its business was to restore the old state of things, and to replace on the thrones from which they had been ousted the pre-Revolution kings or their heirs. It paid no attention whatever to the wishes of the peoples concerned; and, above all, it was determined that they should not have self-government. The nations of Europe were so weary of war that they made little demur. We shall see, however, that the re-established kings and princes soon found themselves in conflict with those ideas which were the outcome of the Revolution, and that, one by one, they were forced to yield to them.

The first business of the Congress was to restore the Great Powers. France was reduced to her old limits, as shown on the coloured map between pages 296–297, and the Bourbon Louis XVIII. was placed on the throne, but not until he had promised to set up a Parliament in which the people were represented. The settlement of Germany, Poland, and Austria was, however, a far more difficult matter.

Before the Revolution Germany consisted of more than three hundred independent states, some of them large and the rest small. During the Napoleonic wars the number of sovereign states had been reduced to thirty-nine. Some far-seeing Germans had hoped to see a unified Germany; but under the influence of Metternich, who was chiefly concerned to keep Austria strong and Germany weak, the Congress decided to maintain these thirty-nine states, and give them a loose bond of union called a *Bund*. Representatives of the thirty-nine states, which you must remember included both Austria and Prussia, were to meet at Frankfort; but as they had no particular duties assigned to them when they did meet, the Bund was little more than a farce. So you see that instead of unity Germany received a Bund, with the Emperor of Austria as president.

Austria came off very well. The rich provinces of Lombardy and Venetia, which extended from the Po right round the head of the Adriatic Sea almost to the peninsula of Istria, Tyrol, and other territory in the south-west, were restored to her. To these lands she had no moral claim at all; they were Italian in all respects.

Prussia had not yet been admitted to the rank of a first-class Power; but her military might was so great that she was allowed to keep Swedish Pomerania and a large part of Saxony. Further, she recovered her Polish province of Posen, and the two provinces of Westphalia and the Rhine, which Napoleon had added to France. Prussia was now by far the strongest and most extensive of the purely German states. In future pages we shall see how she destroyed the influence of Austria in German affairs, and built up a German empire of which she was the head.

Germany had received a Bund which recognized the principle of unity; but the Congress left Italy, as before, a patchwork of small kingdoms and petty states. The King of Sardinia again ruled over Piedmont and Savoy, and the formerly independent city of Genoa was added to his kingdom. The Pope recovered the States of the Church in Central Italy, and the King of the Two Sicilies was reinstated in Naples and the island of Sicily, which England had helped him to keep during the late wars. A number of petty sovereign states were also set up, but Austria was their real master. Indeed, the whole arrangement of this patchwork was made under the influence of Austria, which, you will remember, had received the two richest provinces of Italy.

Holland, and what is now Belgium, were formed into the Kingdom of the Netherlands, under the Prince of Orange, as William I. We shall see that the yoking together of these two states soon led to conflict and separation. Switzerland, which had been formed into the Helvetian Republic, was restored to its former condition—a federation of cantons.

The Congress of Vienna went to work in the old worn-out spirit of the eighteenth century. It set up absolute monarchs and carved out territories, which meant the lives and fortunes of men, just as though it were engaged in making a jig-saw puzzle. Such a reconstruction could not be lasting; but it cost Europe many years and much blood to undo it. Metternich was the guiding spirit of the Congress, and his passion was to restore what he called "order"—that is, to keep the people down by sheer force. The sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia hastened to form what was known as the Holy Alliance—that is, a league for the purpose of helping each other to rule as absolute kings, and to put down revolutions. Alexander I., the Tsar of Russia, started the league; but Metternich speedily became its real leader, and by its means made himself master of Europe for thirty years.

The Holy Allies began to put down all liberal movements, and to encourage each other to give no countenance to ideas of self-government. The consequence was that in Spain, Naples, and elsewhere insurrections broke out. For a time the sovereigns thus threatened were compelled to submit, and to give constitutional government to their peoples. Metternich, however, sent an Austrian army into Italy, crushed the reformers, and restored the Italian sovereigns to their former position.

In Spain, which had received back its deposed sovereign and had risen against him in 1820, the reforming party was overcome by means of a French army, and the reins of authority were drawn tighter than ever. Both in Naples and in Spain the restored kings were bitterly cruel to those who had driven them from power. In France the party opposed to reform also got the upper hand, and a terrible persecution of all anti-Royalists or Jacobins took place. In Germany the reformers were also crushed.

Thus all the struggles for liberty on the continent of Europe during the years 1820–1827 seemed to have hopelessly failed, except in the south-east corner, where the oppressed Greeks rose in revolt against the tyranny of their Turkish masters. For several years the Greeks held out gallantly, in spite of their internal quarrels, and gradually won over public opinion in Europe to their side. In Great Britain there was much sympathy with the Greeks, and many Englishmen fought for them. Lord Byron, the great poet, who in 1813 had thrilled Europe with the call—

> "Hereditary bondsmen! know ye not,
> Who would be free, themselves must strike the blow!"—

joined the Greeks as a volunteer, and fought for them until a fatal attack of fever ended his career in 1824.

Though public opinion in most European countries was favourable to the Greeks, the governments were slow to move. The Sultan of Turkey, in spite of the abominable massacres perpetrated by his troops, was unable to put down the revolt, for the Greeks were now fighting with all the spirit of their ancestors at Marathon and Thermopylæ. He therefore called upon his vassal, Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt, who, hoping to gain some advantage for himself, sent his son Ibrahim to Greece with a fleet and an army. Ibrahim overran the Morea, and it was clear that he would speedily subdue the whole country. At this juncture the British Prime Minister, Canning, whose sympathies were with the Greeks, suggested to the new Tsar, Nicholas I., that the Great Powers should unite to restrain the Turks.

Prussia and Austria would not move; but France joined Great Britain and Russia, and by treaty these powers bound themselves to interfere on behalf of Greece. Ibrahim was ordered to quit the country, and when he refused to do so, the British fleet, with several French and Russian vessels, entered Navarino Bay, where twenty-eight Turkish and Egyptian ships were anchored. During the parley the Turks opened fire; whereupon the British admiral responded, and in four hours the Turkish-Egyptian fleet was destroyed (October 20, 1827). The British admiral had no instructions to fight; but the nation generally approved of his action, and the engagement was described as a "happy accident."

Before the Sultan could make up his mind to grant independence to the Greeks, Russia declared war on him, and forced him to sign a treaty (1829) by which Serbia, Moldavia, and Wallachia were to have Christian governors, and Greece was to be free. A conference of the Powers in London decided that Greece was to be an independent kingdom, and the crown was offered to Otto of Bavaria. Greece thus obtained a German king.

In 1830 a revolution took place in Paris. Louis XVIII. had been gathered to his fathers, and his brother, Charles X., reigned in his stead (1824). Under his rule the old abuses which had led to the Revolution began again. When, however, a thousand million francs were voted to the nobles who had lost their estates at the Revolution, and attempts were made to muzzle the press, the Chamber of Deputies began to resist. The king, however, who, like the other Bourbons, had "learned nothing and forgotten nothing," despite the great upheaval, proceeded to rule as an absolute monarch. In July 1830 Paris rose, and the king was driven from his throne in favour of Louis Philippe, the "Citizen King." The Bourbons had vanished for ever from the throne of France, and a new dynasty, the Orleanist, took their place.

The success of this revolution echoed throughout Europe, and sent a thrill of hope through all peoples who had any desire for freedom. In the course of the year 1830 there were loud demands for self-government in many countries. The Belgians, who, as you know, had been forced by the Congress of Vienna to unite with the Dutch, from whom they differed in race, language, religion, and pursuits, now rose in revolt. The Holy Allies became alarmed; they would gladly have assisted William to crush his revolting subjects, but their hands were too full with troubles of their own. A congress met in November 1830, and decided that Belgium was to be a separate monarchy. The throne was offered to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, and he became King of the Belgians in the following year.

Before I leave the subject I must dwell for a moment on a very important treaty which was made with regard to Belgium in the year 1839. In foregoing pages you have read over and over again of battles fought in Belgium. So many battles have been fought on the soil of this little country that it is known as the "Cockpit of Europe." Why has Belgium been the scene of so many battles? A glance at the map shows you that it stands between England and France and Germany, and as you already know, Austria had possessions in the Netherlands before Napoleon conquered them. If Germany should go to war with France and Great Britain should join in, their armies would naturally meet in Belgium. An army from North Germany and an army marching north from France would come into contact somewhere on the rolling land between Brussels and the Meuse, where on an ordinary map you see so many crossed swords. The French would find a shorter way into Germany, and the Germans into France, across the Ardennes and the high ground farther south; but an army, with its food and baggage trains, always avoids hill country if it can. The reason why the British have fought battles in this district is also clear. They had to meet their allies as rapidly as possible after crossing the sea, and the most convenient meeting-place lay between Brussels and the Meuse.

You can easily understand that when these armies entered

Belgium to fight their battles the Belgians would be sure to suffer. Their fair fields would be trodden down, their industries would cease, food supplies would be seized, houses and public buildings would be destroyed, and many innocent townsfolk and peasants, who had no part or lot in the war, would be killed by stray shots, or put to death because they gave information to the enemy. The plight of Belgium when her big neighbours fought out their quarrels on her soil was always terrible. So in the year 1839 the five great European Powers—Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Prussia—made a solemn treaty by which they promised that they would never again trespass on Belgian soil. That is what we mean when we talk about the neutrality of Belgium. When, in August 1914, Germany tore up this treaty, and in defiance of her solemn promises invaded Belgium for the purpose of attacking France by the easiest route, Britain felt in honour bound to join in the Great War.

The agitation in Germany caused most of the sovereigns of the smaller states to give their peoples rights of self-government; but the monarchs of Prussia and Austria were proof against any such ideas of freedom. The heavy hand of Metternich prevented risings in Italy, and the only result was increased hatred of Austria. In Poland, however, there was a great insurrection, which had fatal results. By the Congress of Vienna the kingdom of Poland had been partially restored. Prussia and Austria had given up some of the stolen territory, and the Tsar Alexander, a man of generous instincts and far-seeing wisdom, though ruling as a despot in Russia, had agreed to give his Polish subjects a parliament, and to reign over them as a constitutional king. When, however, he died, his brother Nicholas would have no dealing with these new-fangled notions, and a period of persecution set in. In November 1830 a band of young Poles raised a revolution in Warsaw, and speedily the whole country was in revolt. The patriots set up a government, and prepared to fight for their independence.

For a year the Poles held out with great valour; but from the first their fate was sealed. They could not stand against the vast, well-armed, and well-disciplined armies of Russia, and the country was subdued. Nicholas now determined that there should be no more revolutions. He merged Poland in Russia, and strove to make the land Russian in language, faith, and allegiance; but do what he might, he could not make the people forget that they had once been masters in their own proud household.

In Britain alone a reform movement was successful. The Reform Act of 1832 gave votes to thousands of persons hitherto without a voice in the government of the country. Though the Act only admitted the middle class to a fair share of political power, the working classes were well aware that they could not long be excluded. The real effect of the Reform Act was seen sixteen years later, when the constitution of Great Britain remained unshaken while thrones and governments were toppling down all over Europe. It was then felt that the supporters of the Reform Act had spoken the truth when they said that reform did not mean revolution, but that it was a guarantee against sudden and violent change.

*Read:* Part III. (Chapter I.) *The Vintage,* by E. F. Benson (Methuen).

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## 40. THE YEAR OF REVOLUTION.

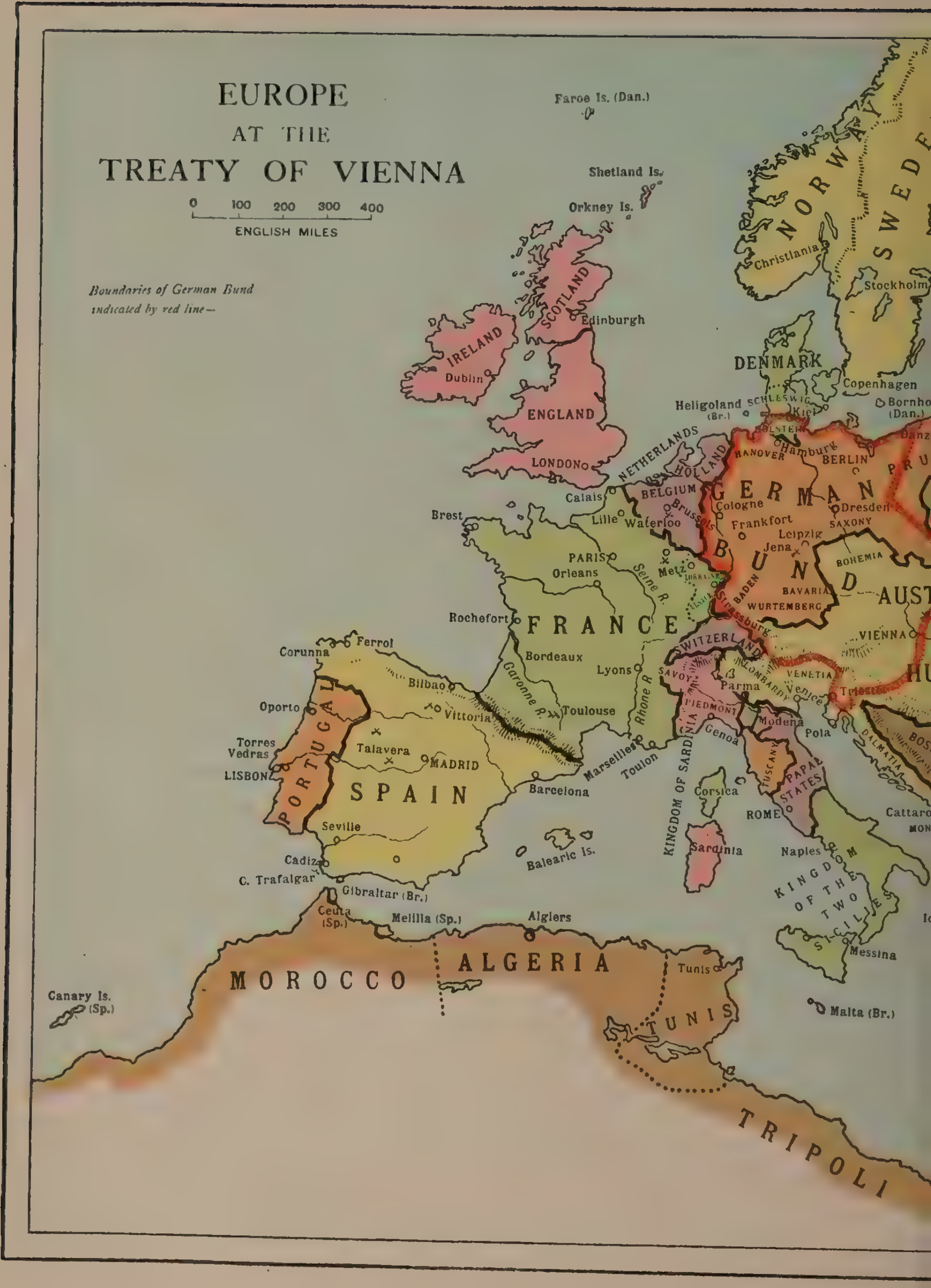
**[Contemporary British Sovereign: Victoria** (1837).]

THE year 1848 is known in history as the "Year of Revolution." In every state in Europe for some years previously there had been a sense of unrest and an expectation of upheaval. In 1848 this smouldering fire of revolt burst into a blaze.

The first great shock was felt in France. In that country the Chamber of Deputies was corrupt, and the mass of the people had no votes. The Chamber was filled by Government office-holders and rich men who despised the people and combined to resist their demands. The growth of manufactures had brought working-men together in cities, and cities have ever been the strongholds of freedom. The working-classes now began to demand more political power. They complained, as they had good reason to do, that among a population of thirty millions only 200,000 persons had votes. Guizot, the Prime Minister, strongly resisted the demands of the people; and as they had no constitutional method of carrying their wishes into effect, they turned to violence. On February 22, 1848, barricades were set up in the streets of Paris to bar the movements of the troops, and crowds paraded the city clamouring for reform and shouting for the dismissal of Guizot.

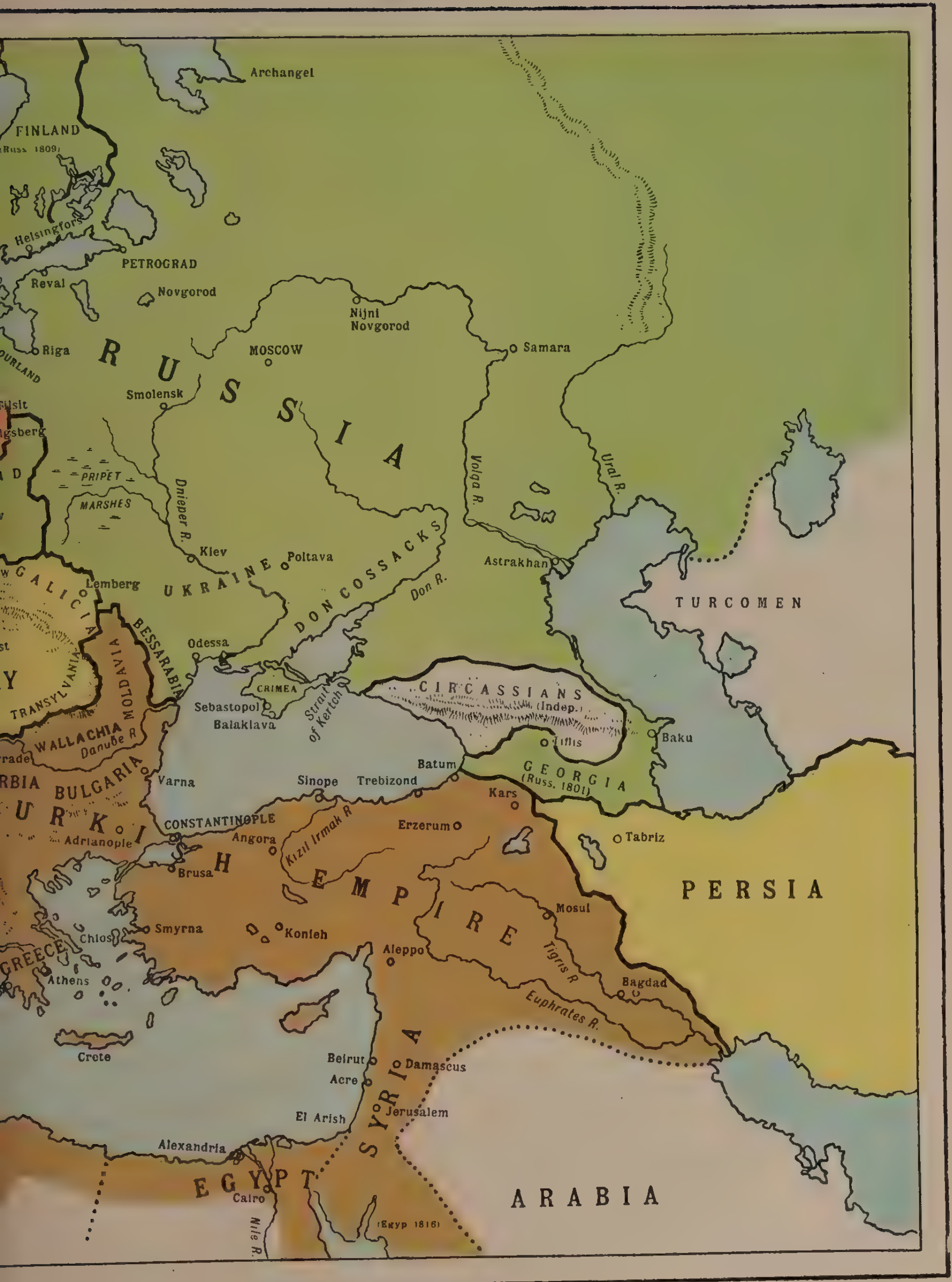
In this crisis Louis Philippe relied upon the National Guard, or civic militia, which had been his chief support when he became the "Citizen King." But he found, to his dismay, that the Guard was no longer in sympathy with him, and that some of its members, instead of attending to their military duties, were busy drawing up petitions for reform. He now began to realize his danger. He allowed Guizot to resign; but the discontent was too deep-seated to be thus appeased. There were furious fights in the streets between the citizens and the troops, and so much popular fury was excited that the ministers saw that they could not resist. Paris was accustomed to rioting, but never before had it seen fights of such ferocity. The outbreak was not quelled until ten thousand men lay dead or wounded in the streets.

Louis Philippe, once the most popular man in the country, now found himself bitterly hated, and without any support from foreign Powers. He had no alternative but to resign the crown and flee the country. He and his wife sought refuge in England, under the assumed names of Mr. and Mrs. Smith. The overthrow of Louis Philippe was followed by the establishment of a republic. Louis Napoleon, nephew of the great emperor, hastened from London and put himself forward as a member of the new Chamber of Deputies. He was the inheritor of a name which was still an inspiring watchword in France, and at the election for President of the Republic (December 1848) he received a vast majority of votes. His success was due to no virtues of his own, but simply to the glamour of the name which he bore.



# EUROPE
AT THE
TREATY OF VIENNA

*Boundaries of German Bund indicated by red line—*


Archangel
FINLAND
(Russ. 1809)
Helsingfors
PETROGRAD
Reval
Novgorod
Nijni
Novgorod
Riga
MOSCOW
Samara
URLAND
R U S S I A
Smolensk
Tilsit
gsberg
D
PRIPET
MARSHES
Dnieper R.
Volga R.
Ural R.
Kiev
Poltava
Astrakhan
GALICIA
Lemberg
UKRAINE
DON COSSACKS
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TURCOMEN
BESSARABIA
MOLDAVIA
TRANSYLVANIA
st
Y
Odessa
CRIMEA
Sebastopol
Balaklava
Strait of Kertch
CIRCASSIANS
(Indep.)
Tiflis
Baku
WALLACHIA
Danube R.
rade
RBIA
BULGARIA
Varna
Sinope
Trebizond
Batum
GEORGIA
(Russ. 1801)
Kars
T U R K I S H   E M P I R E
Adrianople
CONSTANTINOPLE
Angora
Kizil Irmak R.
Erzerum
Tabriz
Brusa
PERSIA
Mosul
Smyrna
Konieh
Chios
GREECE
Athens
Aleppo
Tigris R.
Bagdad
Euphrates R.
Crete
Beirut
Damascus
Acre
SYRIA
Jerusalem
El Arish
Alexandria
EGYPT
Cairo
Nile R.
(Egyp. 1816)
ARABIA

Two years later, when an act of the Assembly disfranchised one-third of the voters in France, Napoleon stood out as the champion of the voteless masses. He had used his position as president to make himself popular with the troops, and to attach the police to his side. When the Chamber refused to repeal the electoral law, he felt that the moment had arrived when he could overturn the republic and proclaim himself emperor.

On the evening of December 1, 1851, all his preparations were complete. Before daybreak on 2nd December certain prominent citizens were arrested, the meeting-place of the Assembly was occupied by troops, and a proclamation was scattered throughout Paris. A year later, on December 2, 1852, seven million voters decided that Napoleon should be proclaimed Emperor of the French.

Outside France, the great desire of the peoples was that each race should be formed into a separate state. You will remember that the Congress of Vienna had ignored this principle, and had carved out states as though it were cutting blocks of wood. The great ferment in the year of revolution brought about, in North Germany and in Italy, a union of those peoples who were related by blood, language, and religion, but separated by political divisions. In Austria, on the other hand, the national spirit which inspired the revolutions tended to split up the empire, because it comprised many races which had nothing in common, and were united only by the rule of one sovereign.

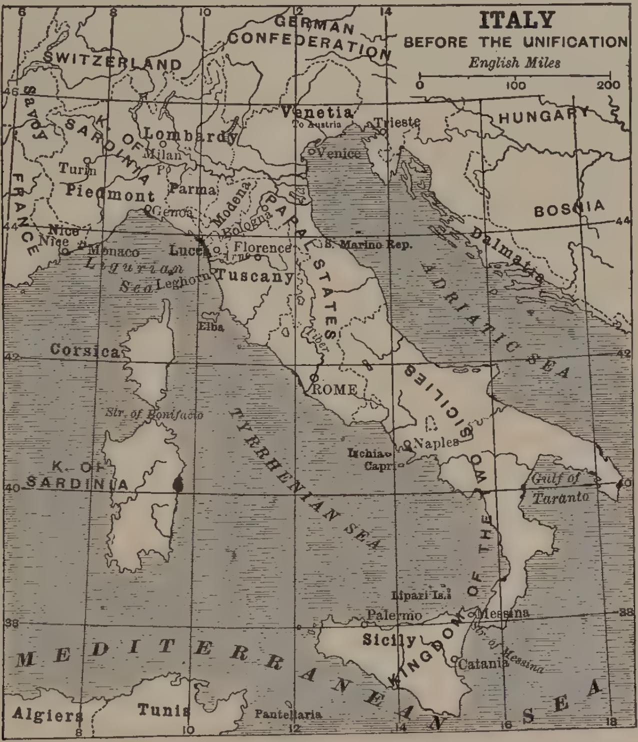
I shall deal with the German progress towards unity in a later lesson. Here I will describe very briefly the progress of revolution in Austria. During the year 1848 the empire was torn with internal strife. Inflamed by the loss of their local rights and their political freedom, the Magyars of Hungary, under the leadership of that eloquent patriot Kossuth, broke into open revolt (1849). They proclaimed a republic, and defeated the Austrians in several battles. When, however, the Tsar Nicholas sent eighty thousand Russians across the frontier, the movement was crushed. A terrible vengeance was taken on the revolutionists, and it seemed that the liberties of Hungary had vanished for ever.

Now we must learn how Italy became a unified state. At this time, you will remember, Lombardy and Venetia belonged to Austria; the kingdom of Sardinia consisted of the island of that name, and of Piedmont and Savoy; the Papal States extended from the mouth of the Po to Rome, mainly on the eastern side of the peninsula; between them and the west coast lay the Grand-Duchy of Tuscany, while south of Rome stretched the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. In addition, there were certain little states which need not be specially mentioned.

The petty sovereigns of Italy ruled as tyrants, and as you know, they were supported by Austria. For this reason the efforts of the reformers were directed to throwing off the Austrian yoke. It was felt that while Austria continued to be all-powerful in Italy no better condition of things could be hoped for. In March 1848 there were fierce riots in Lombardy and Venetia. Austrian troops were driven out, and a new government was set up. The revolutionary fever spread through Tuscany and Rome to Sicily, and Mazzini, the great republican writer, and many other patriots, allied themselves with the supporters of Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, in an attempt to establish a free and independent kingdom of Italy. Charles Albert, emboldened by the difficulties of Austria, and urged on by his own subjects, accepted the proposal. Before the spring was over Italian troops from all the revolting states were marching into Lombardy. The long-expected war of all Italy against the Austrians had begun.

At first success seemed certain; but in the first battle the Italian forces were scattered, and, sick at heart, Charles gave up his throne. He was succeeded by his son, Victor Emmanuel II., who was forced to sign a peace by which he had to pay a money fine to Austria. In little more than a year after the risings began Austria was once more mistress of the north. The cause of Italian independence seemed to have utterly failed in this part of Italy; nevertheless the patriots had learned the lesson that was ultimately to give them victory. They now knew that if they were to succeed they must set aside all their differences and fight shoulder to shoulder.

In the south the patriots at first won successes, which unhappily were short-lived. Pope Pius IX., a very earnest and able man, then ruled the Papal States. He sympathized with the cause of Italian independence, and granted his people a constitution, but he would not take part in the national war against Austria. The Romans, who were passionately eager to help their fellow-countrymen, now grew so restless that the Pope fled from the city, and Mazzini and his friends became all-powerful in Rome. They declared that the Pope had forfeited his crown as sovereign of the Papal States, and set up a republic. Roman Catholic peoples all over the world were horrified, and Louis Napoleon, now President of the French Republic, and anxious to give France another career of martial glory, sent an army to Rome for the purpose of sweeping the revolutionists out of the city and restoring the Pope.



Mazzini called upon the young patriot Garibaldi to defend Rome against the French. Garibaldi inspired the Romans with a courage equal to his own; but weight of numbers overcame him. In quitting the city he said to his devoted bands, " Soldiers, I offer you hunger, thirst, cold, heat, no pay, no rations; whoever loves Italy, follow me." Nearly four thousand soldiers followed him across the Apennines, where they were hunted down by the Austrians. In the meantime the French entered the conquered city, and restored the old papal rule. A few months later the Pope returned. Thus the cause of Italian freedom failed for a time. It took ten more years of ceaseless struggle before the unity of Italy became an accomplished fact.

Victor Emmanuel was now regarded by all Italians as the man who was destined to give them a free and independent Italy. Fortunately, he found a gifted adviser in Count Cavour, who directed his policy against *the* enemy, Austria. So fiercely was she hated at this time that the national watchword was, " Death to the Austrians ! " Cavour knew that Sardinia alone could not cope with Austria; she must win a powerful ally before she had any chance of freeing the land from the hated foreigners. He therefore made friends with Napoleon, and in 1858 a treaty was signed. Austria guessed what it meant, and at once called upon Sardinia to disarm. She refused, and the war for which Cavour had worked and hoped began.

Napoleon made short work of the Austrians. By the two victories of Magenta and Solferino (1859) the French and the Sardinians drove them out of the Plain of Lombardy into their strongholds on the frontier. The campaign had begun gloriously, and the Italians believed that their cause was already won. Suddenly, however, without consulting the Sardinians, Napoleon signed a treaty of peace with Austria. He had won all the glory that he desired, and he was afraid that Prussia might take sides with Austria and attack him. His Italian allies were furious, but they were powerless. The result was that Lombardy was given to Victor Emmanuel, but that Venetia remained in the hands of Austria. Napoleon's reward consisted of Savoy and Nice, which still belong to France.

At this time Naples was in a shameful condition. The people were ruled by a bigoted tyrant who was abhorred by his subjects, and was generally regarded as the worst ruler in Europe. Mr. Gladstone, during a visit to Naples in 1851, found that there were twenty thousand persons in prison for "political offences," and that men were flung into jail and kept there without any charge being brought against them. The prisons in which innocent and guilty were herded together were dark, airless, and unspeakably filthy; the police inflicted torture, and trials were a mockery of justice. Mr. Gladstone published the facts in an open letter to Lord Aberdeen. These revelations shocked the civilized world, and King "Bomba," as Ferdinand II. was called because of the cruel fashion in which he had bombarded Palermo, was execrated everywhere.

In 1860 an insurrection broke out in Sicily, and Victor Emmanuel and Cavour secretly encouraged Garibaldi to make the outbreak the beginning of a revolutionary movement. He called to his banner a thousand volunteers; and though he was disowned by the King of Sardinia, who publicly begged him to desist, he and his "Thousand" speedily made themselves masters of Sicily. When he crossed over to Naples he was everywhere received as a deliverer. King Francis, "Bomba's" son, fled at his approach, and Garibaldi, after defeating a portion of the army which resisted, became Dictator of Naples.

The foundations of Italian unity had now been laid. In 1866, as you will learn in the next lesson, Prussia and Austria quarrelled as to the future government of two provinces which they had stolen from Denmark. As soon as war broke out Victor Emmanuel made an alliance with the King of Prussia. One of the terms of this alliance was that no peace should be made with Austria until she had given up Venetia to Italy. The war was all over in seven weeks: Austria was thoroughly beaten, and Venetia was restored to the Italians. They also asked for the old Italian territory to the north and east of this province. "Give us the Trentino," they begged; but Prussia would not do so. "Let us at least have Trieste," they implored; but Prussia angrily refused. "Trieste is for Germany," was the reply. Austria was to be allowed to keep the great Italian port until such time as Prussia should be ready

THE MEETING OF GARIBALDI AND KING VICTOR EMMANUEL II.

(*From the fresco by Pietro Aldi in the Town Hall at Siena.*)

to plant her mailed foot on the shores of the Mediterranean. The Italians have never ceased to claim this *Italia Irredenta*, or " Italy unredeemed." They fought for it during the Great War.

Prussia, according to her wont, played false with Italy. Though she had made Austria give up Venetia, she arranged the boundary between Italy and Austria in such a way that all the advantages were on the side of Austria. It has been said that the frontier which Austria was allowed to fortify was worth three victorious campaigns to her. The Italians were very conscious of this fact during the Great War.

Italy now consisted of a united north and south, with a wedge of Papal territory between. The half-million inhabitants of the Papal States were very discontented, and ardently desired that Rome should be the national capital. But French soldiers still held Rome, and Napoleon III. was determined to maintain the Pope on his throne. At length, on the outbreak of the Franco-German War (1870) Napoleon was forced to withdraw his troops from Rome. Victor Emmanuel immediately seized the city. There was a great outcry from the Catholic world, but no nation went to the rescue. The Pope, relieved of his temporal dominions, was allowed to reside in the Vatican, and the Eternal City became the capital of free and united Italy.

*Read :* Herbert Hayens's *Red, White, and Green* (Nelson).

## 41. THE EASTERN QUESTION.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: Victoria** (1837); **Edward VII.** (1901).]

The Tsar Nicholas I. of Russia was a man of great ambition and daring spirit. Like his predecessors for a hundred years, he ardently desired to push Russian dominion to the shores of the Mediterranean, and thence eastward. Turkey blocked his way. She was a decaying Power, and the Tsar thought that before long she would go to pieces, and he would be afforded an opportunity of carrying out his designs.

I have already told you how the curse of Turkish domination fell upon the Christian nations of South-Eastern Europe. The Ottoman power reached its height in the sixteenth century, and received its first check when John Sobieski drove the Turkish host from the walls of Vienna. Before the century was out its decline was everywhere visible. Nevertheless, with the pertinacity of a noxious weed, it maintained its hold from Hungary to Cape Matapan, and from the Adriatic to the Ægean Sea, right down to the beginning of the eighteenth century. Corrupt and cruel misgovernment drove the Christian nations under its sway into revolt, and helped by the mountainous nature of the country, they managed to maintain a struggle for freedom. The Powers at length came to their aid, and one by one more or less independent Christian states were carved out of Turkish territory and gradually enlarged, until, by the beginning of the Great War, Turkey in Europe was reduced to a territory less in extent than one-fourth of Wales. Such in brief outline is the history of the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire in Europe.

I have spoken of Turkish domination in Europe as a curse. Though a brave and stubborn soldier, the Turk is proverbially the worst of all rulers. He has reduced to sterile deserts lands which might blossom as the rose, and for the greater part of his career has robbed and blackmailed his Christian subjects without mercy. He is a backward Asiatic, and his presence in Europe has led to untold misery. Every war that has taken place in Europe since 1870 has been waged, in whole or in part, in the territories which he formerly ruled or still rules. You will see in the course of this lesson that Britain was his friend, and stood by him when the interests of mankind would have been best served by his downfall. Nevertheless, soon after the Great War began he threw in his lot with Germany.

By the year 1840 Turkey in Europe had dwindled greatly. Greece had liberated herself, and Wallachia and Moldavia were practically independent, though in theory still tributary to

Turkey. In that year the Tsar Nicholas sincerely believed that the break-up of the Turkish Empire could not be long delayed. "We have on our hands," he said to an English ambassador, "a sick man—a very sick man. It would be a great misfortune if, one of these days, he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements have been made." With this object in view, he suggested a partition of the Turkish dominions, and offered Crete and Egypt to Britain as her share of the spoils. The bribe was, of course, indignantly refused. Britain was determined to uphold Turkey, because she feared that a Russian advance to Constantinople would be a threat to India. Palmerston, the British statesman, believed that Turkey still possessed the spark of life, and that it might be fanned into the flame of renewed vigour.

In 1852 a trifling cause of difference arose between France and Russia. A rivalry existed between the Latin and Greek monks in Palestine as to the custody of the Holy Places. The Latin monks claimed that certain of these places should be entrusted exclusively to their keeping; but this the Greek monks disputed. As both the Greek and the Latin monks were Christians, the matter would seem almost too small for discussion; but beneath these trifles lay more serious questions.

The Tsar naturally supported the members of his own Church, and Louis Napoleon became the champion of the Latins. Both parties brought pressure to bear on the Sultan, who decided in favour of the Western Church. The Tsar now proceeded to strong measures. He put forward the claim which had been conceded by the Sultan to Catherine II., and demanded that the Sultan should recognize him as the protector of all Christians within the Turkish Empire. This would have given him a right to interfere in the internal government of Turkey. The demand was therefore resisted, and in 1853 Nicholas sent his armies across the Pruth, and occupied Moldavia and Wallachia.

Though not in the least interested in the quarrel about the Holy Places, Britain was very much concerned at the occupation of Turkish territory by Russian troops. She could not overlook the Tsar's action, for she feared that it was the first

FRENCH TROOPS AT THE BATTLE OF THE ALMA.

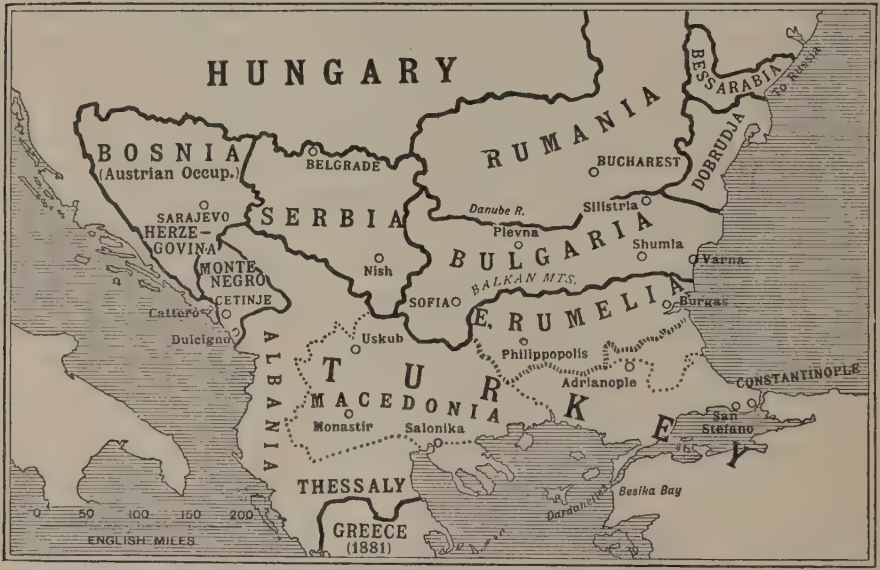
(*From the picture by Pils in Versailles.*)

step towards bringing about the sick man's death by violent means. The upshot was a quarrel, which an injudicious British ambassador, who had a frank and bitter hatred for the Tsar, precipitated into war. Britain allied herself with Turkey, France, and Sardinia. The Emperor Napoleon had nothing to gain by taking up arms, except that he hoped to establish himself firmly on the throne by a career of military glory; and Sardinia joined in, hoping to win the favour of the Western Powers, and thereby to advance the cause of Italian unity. Most historians now consider the Crimean War of 1854–1855 a blunder. In taking Sebastopol, Russia's Black Sea fortress, Britain lost twenty-four thousand men, and added £41,000,000 to her national debt. She saved for a time the Ottoman Government, but this poor success was not lasting. Twenty-one years after the close of the Crimean campaign, Russia and Turkey were at war again.

In 1875 the exactions of Turkish tax-gatherers drove the people of Bosnia to revolt. The insurgents maintained themselves bravely amongst the mountains, and their resistance was the signal for Christians to rise against their Moslem masters throughout the Turkish dominions. Tumult and bloodshed raged unchecked throughout the Balkans. The murder of the French and German consuls at Salonika in 1876 opened the eyes of the Powers to the real state of affairs, and a plan was proposed for bringing about reform. This plan was accepted by all the Powers but Great Britain. Fearing that Russia had designs upon Constantinople, she sent her fleet to Besika Bay, and announced that she would allow no change in the East without her consent. Meanwhile those terrible massacres known as the "Bulgarian atrocities" had begun. Turkish irregulars went to and fro in the Bulgarian villages, slaughtering the defenceless men, women, and children in cold blood.

The Sultan denied the massacres, and many people in Great Britain readily accepted his denials; but a British consul who was sent to make inquiries on the spot reported that twelve thousand victims had fallen. Then, and only then, was the awful condition of Turkey realized. An ever-deepening cry, led by Gladstone, demanded that these outrages should cease; but the British Government still barred the way to retribution. The

Russians, however, were deeply moved by the sufferings of the Bulgarians, who are related to them by ties of race and religion, and were eager to march against the Turks. The Tsar freely gave assurances that he had no intention of seizing Turkish territory, and at last the British Government agreed to a conference of the Powers at Constantinople. But when it met the Turks pointed out that by the treaty which ended the Crimean War they were protected from interference. It was now evident that they would yield to no reforms without compulsion.



THE BALKAN SETTLEMENT OF 1878.

The proposed extension of Bulgaria under the San Stefano Treaty is shown by a light dotted line.

On April 24, 1877, the Tsar declared war. In June his forces crossed the Danube, and a month later were in command of all the chief passes of the Balkan Mountains. A Turkish general, Osman Pasha, alone held up the Russian advance by his heroic defence of Plevna. When that fortress fell, after five months' siege (December 1877), the Russians advanced towards Constantinople without opposition. When they were in sight of the domes and minarets of the city, the Tsar offered peace on conditions. These were accepted, and a new era opened for the Christians of the Balkans.

By the Treaty of San Stefano, which was concluded in March 1878, Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania were to receive increases of territory, and to become fully independent; while Bulgaria was to be greatly extended, and to receive a form of home rule. Provision was to be made for the government of Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Crete; certain Turkish territory was to be handed over to Russia, and a war indemnity was to be paid.

The ink was scarcely dry on this treaty, which practically meant the end of Turkey in Europe, when the Powers stepped in to prevent Russia from reaping the fruits of her victory. Britain threatened war unless Russia agreed to let the questions at issue be settled by a European conference. Russia was forced to agree, and the Berlin Congress was summoned (June 1878). The Powers were suspicious of Russia, and they therefore adopted the plan of Metternich in dealing with Germany at the Congress of Vienna. They set up a number of small states, which they hoped would prove to be an effective barrier against any attempt on the part of Russia to reach Constantinople. Lest Bulgaria should become a strong ally of Russia, that part of the country south of the Balkans which is called Eastern Rumelia was restored to Turkish authority. I shall tell you the story of the various buffer states in a later lesson.

Before Russia began the campaign described above, she secretly promised Austria that if she would stand out of the fight she should receive as her reward the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Austria stood out, and the Congress of Berlin gave her a protectorate over these provinces. The people, who are akin to their Serbian neighbours, greatly resented their transfer to Austria, and have ever since been discontented with Austrian rule. When, in 1908, Austria annexed the provinces, a strong movement sprang up for union with Serbia. It was in the capital of Bosnia that the pistol shot was fired which precipitated the Great War.

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*Read:* John Finnemore's *In the Trenches* (Nelson).

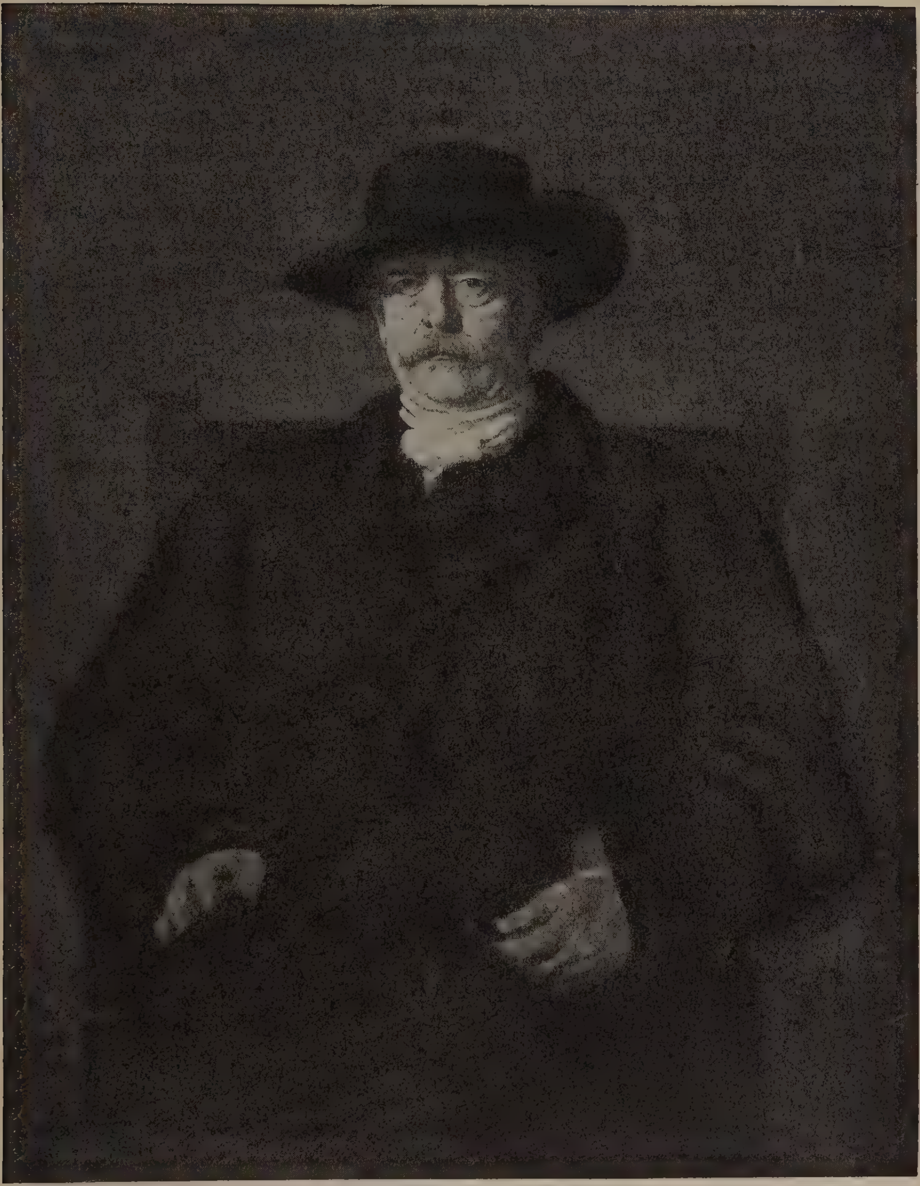
## 42. THE MAN OF BLOOD AND IRON.

[**Contemporary British Sovereign: Victoria** (1837).]

In Lesson 39 I told you that after the downfall of Napoleon Germany received, instead of unity, a Bund, with the Emperor of Austria as president. During the period when men of all nations were crying out for more freedom, one excellent arrangement grew out of this Bund. Germany, as you know, then consisted of thirty-nine sovereign states, each with its own ruler, army, and customs officials. Goods passing from one state to another had to pay tolls, and this made them very expensive to the purchaser, and greatly hampered trade. If I were to ask you to suggest a way out of the difficulty, you would say, "Let all the states unite in a group, and take toll once and for all when the goods enter the group. The money so received can be divided up amongst the states afterwards." This is just what was done. A Customs Union, or Zollverein, was formed, and each state sent a member to represent it in the Bund Diet.

When the German peoples began to see the advantages of uniting in this way so as to make trade easier, they became more and more convinced that a union for other purposes would be good also. In the "year of revolution" six hundred representatives from the German states met at Frankfort, and did away with the old Bund, of which, you will remember, the Emperor of Austria was president. They wished to unite all the German states into one empire, with one parliament and one set of laws. They invited the King of Prussia, Frederick William IV., to be emperor; but he refused to be dictated to by the people. He would not, he said, accept "a crown out of the gutter."

Then followed many risings in the south of Germany; but they were all put down, and the kings and princes seemed to have gained the upper hand. As a matter of fact the people had set up a new ideal: they were determined on unity, and though many years were to pass before they realized their wishes,



OTTO VON BISMARCK.

(*From the picture by Franz von Lenbach.*)

This portrait shows Bismarck at the time when he was practically ruler of Prussia.

unity was bound to come. In May 1851 the old Bund was restored, and once more held its meetings at Frankfort.

Now let me introduce to you the man who brought about the union of the German states into an empire. His name was Otto von Bismarck, and he was born in the year of Waterloo. His father was a Brandenburg squire, and young Bismarck grew up with a great reverence for kings and a deep abhorrence of those who dared to rise against them. At the university he was a famous duellist: it is said that in his student days he fought twenty-seven duels. He was very proud of being a Prussian, and was ready to do anything and everything to make Prussia not only the greatest state of Germany, but the leader of all the German states as well. By nature he was honest and straightforward; but he did not stick at deceit if he thought that thereby the interests of his country might be advanced.

In the year 1847 we find him attending the Bund Diet as one of the members for Prussia. He soon showed that he was a king's man, and that he had no belief in the rule of the people. Prussia, he knew, had been created by the power of the sword, under the rule of kings who did pretty much as they pleased, and allowed their people to have no part in the government. Bismarck believed that Prussia had been made great by strong kings and by a strong army, and that by similar means she could be made the great overlord of Germany. Such was his fixed belief.

Though he took no honours at college, he possessed the biggest brain of his time. He soon became a marked man, and the king appointed him ambassador at St. Petersburg and afterwards at Paris. In 1862 he was recalled from the French capital to be chief Minister of King William I., brother of Frederick William IV., who had died insane. From that day down to the year 1890 he was the foremost man, first of Prussia, then of Germany, and finally of Europe.

At that time Prussia's great rival amongst the German states was Austria. It was Austria that had forced the Prussian king to set up the old Bund again, because in it she had the chief power. When Bismarck went to the Bund, in 1862, he plainly told Austria that Germany could never be united until she ceased to interfere in German affairs, and that she had quite enough to do in looking after her own business. He also told the Bund that the unity of Germany could never be brought about by parliaments, but only by " blood and iron." By this he meant war. He firmly believed that the German states could only be welded together when their soldiers fought and died side by side on the battlefield.

First, he set himself to build up an army so strong that it would be able to strike respect or fear into all German peoples, and make them regard Prussia as their master and leader. You already know that when the Prussians beat Napoleon in 1813 all the men of military age in the country had been passed through the army. Bismarck determined to form his new army in the same way. Most of the people objected; but Bismarck persisted, and his old college friend Von Roon made plans for an army on these lines. The Prussian Parliament refused to pass the new army law, and at last the king said that he would resign his throne. Bismarck, however, would not give way. One day, after he had made a defiant speech in Parliament, the king said, " Over there, in front of the Opera House, under my windows, they will cut off your head, and mine a little while afterwards." Bismarck, however, was not frightened. He succeeded in persuading the king to ignore Parliament, and the army was created. It was trained by a great soldier named Von Moltke, whose nephew was chief of the German staff when the Great War began.

When the army was strong enough, Bismarck meant to go to war with Austria; but until that time arrived he determined to keep the peace with her. In the year 1863 the King of Denmark died, and when the new king came to the throne a dispute arose about the two duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. I cannot explain to you all the rights and wrongs of this dispute. An English statesman of the time said that only two men understood it—one was dead, and the other was in a lunatic asylum. Holstein, though formerly a part of the Holy Roman Empire, was ruled by Danish princes; Schleswig was more distinctly Danish.

There were constant quarrels between the Danes and the

Germans in these duchies. Already in 1848 the Danes had beaten off an attack. But sixteen years later Bismarck thought the time had come to seize them both. So, like the far-seeing man that he was, he made a treaty with Russia to prevent her from interfering and invited Austria to join him in the venture. The idea of uniting these duchies with Germany was very popular in all the German states, and Austria felt bound to take part in their conquest. If she had not done so, Prussia would have asserted herself as the leader of Germany, and this was the very thing that Austria was determined to prevent.

To make a long story short, the two giants, Prussia and Austria, in 1864 attacked little Denmark; and though the Danes fought like heroes, they were crushed, and the two duchies were seized. But how were they to be divided? Prussia soon showed that she meant to have both of them. To this Austria would not agree, and thus the robbers fell out over the division of their booty. Before they came to blows King William made Bismarck a count, and thus addressed him: "In the four years which have elapsed since I summoned you to the head of the state government, Prussia has gained a position which is worthy of her history, and which promises a fortunate and glorious future."

During the spring of 1866 Von Moltke prepared his army and studied his plan of campaign. He had a surprise in store, not only for Austria but for all the world. His soldiers were armed with the first breech-loading rifle; it was discharged by a steel needle, and it could fire far more rapidly than the rifle then used by other armies. When the Prussians had been fully exercised in the use of this weapon, and all the other preparations were complete, war began.

On June 23, 1866, three Prussian armies entered Bohemia by different routes, with orders to drive back the Austrians and gather in force at Sadowa, a village eight miles north-west of Königgratz, on the Elbe. These armies had to advance through passes in the mountain wall which forms the natural rampart of Bohemia. Instead of flinging themselves against the Prussians as they issued from these passes, the Austrians delayed until the armies of the enemy had successfully threaded them. Then followed the battle of Sadowa, or Königgratz as the Germans call it.

The Austrians were posted in a strong position, and they had good artillery, with which they inflicted heavy casualties on the Prussians. After three hours' fighting the Austrians looked like winning. Suddenly, however, the Second Prussian Army, under the Crown Prince, arrived on the field of battle. Regiment after regiment of Prussians in their dark-blue uniforms advanced, all armed with the needle-gun, and a rapid and deadly fire burst upon the Austrians. Nothing so terrible had been known before. The Austrians held their ground for an hour, suffering fearful losses; but they were obliged to give way at last, and the battle was won. Thirty-two thousand Austrians were killed, wounded, or missing; the Prussians had lost only nine thousand men.

The defeat was so crushing that Austria could no longer resist. The Prussians marched towards Vienna, and peace was made. Austria had to pay a heavy indemnity, give up her claim to the duchies, and agree to let the German states form a union from which she was to be excluded. The whole campaign only lasted seven weeks. At the end of it Prussia stood without a rival in Germany. She annexed Hanover and Hesse-Cassel, which had tried to help Austria, and was now a large, compact state of nearly thirty millions of people, stretching over the whole of North Germany, from Frankfort in the south to Kiel in the north. Not only had Prussia become the greatest state of Germany, but she had cleared away the obstacle that stood in the path of a united Germany, of which she was to be the head. By means of "blood and iron" the first step towards German unity had been accomplished.

After the war the German states north of the Main were united into a Norddeutscher Bund, or North German Confederation, with Prussia at their head. The states south of the Main remained outside the combination, and had still to be brought into it. Bismarck believed that this could only be done by means of war. Let me tell you how he brought it about.

You have already heard of Louis Napoleon, who made himself Emperor of the French in 1852. He, you will remember, was eager to restore the old martial glory connected with the name which he bore. For this reason he helped the Italians, and fought along with Britain in the Crimea. For centuries the French had kept a jealous eye on Germany, and had striven to prevent her from becoming a serious rival. Louis XIV. had possessed himself of Alsace and Lorraine, and Napoleon had conquered Germany and parcelled out a good deal of it amongst his marshals and the members of his family. After his fall the Germans, by dint of good government and peaceful industry, had grown greatly in power, and the French regarded this advance with great suspicion. When Prussia beat Austria, and made herself the head of the North German Bund, the French began to think that the time had come to clip her wings.

A dispute arose, as disputes always do if you seek for them. The King of Spain died, and Bismarck put forward the Hohenzollern prince Leopold as candidate for the vacant throne. The French people were much alarmed at the prospect of a German king ruling Spain, and there was considerable excitement in all parts of France. The German prince was withdrawn; but this did not satisfy the French people, who were eager for war.

At this time King William of Prussia was at Ems enjoying a holiday, and his chief ministers were away on holiday too. The French ambassador went to Ems, and demanded that the Prussian king should promise never again to put forward a German candidate for the Spanish throne. King William refused to do this, because, as he said, "one cannot and ought not to enter into engagements for all time," and sent a telegram to Bismarck giving him an account of the interview. The wily Chancellor saw that he had now a chance of stirring up a strife that would bring about the very war on which he had built all his hopes. He wrote out a shortened form of the telegram, and made it read in such a way that it would be a "red rag for the French bull." Then he published it. In the early morning of 14th July it reached Paris, and shortly after noon the emperor met his council. At one o'clock the next day the

Chambers met, and amidst loud shouts of joy voted the money for the coming struggle. War was declared the same day.

Bismarck had now kindled the third and most desperate of the wars which were to bring about German unity. So skilfully had he waved his "red rag" that all Europe believed the French to be the aggressors. On 16th July the North Bund met, and agreed to fight. Three days later, to the great surprise of Napoleon, the South German States held a meeting, and determined to make war against France under the leadership of the King of Prussia. This was a great triumph for Bismarck, who now saw clearly that if the united German armies could beat France their comradeship in arms and their common joy in victory would be almost certain to bring about the establishment of a German empire.

*Read:* John Oxenham's *John of Gerisau* (Hodder & Stoughton).

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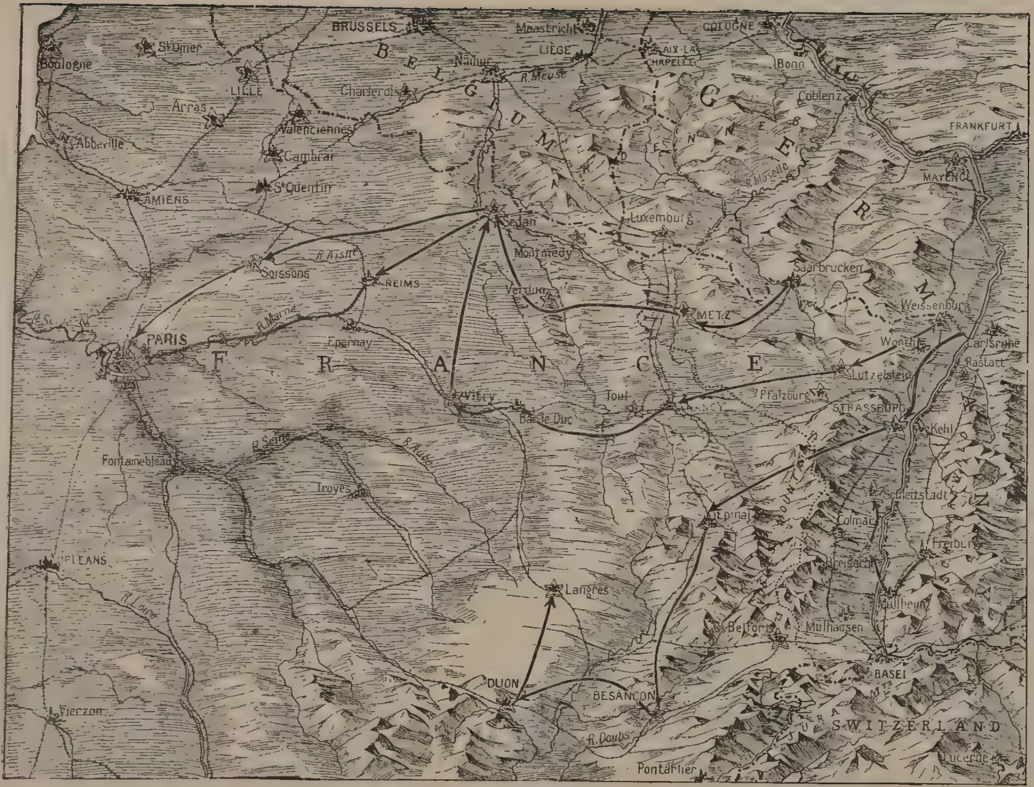
## 43. THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

[**Contemporary British Sovereign: Victoria** (1837).]

The Germans had prepared diligently for war. They had all the stores, guns, ammunition, and railway trains that they needed, and the whole system was arranged like clockwork. The French, however, were very badly prepared. The Minister of War declared that he could place 400,000 men on the frontier, and assured the public that everything was in order; not even a "gaiter-button" was missing. There were enough cartridges to kill all the Germans twice over; the army had been supplied with a new rifle, the *chassepot*, far more deadly than the needle-gun which the Prussians had used against the Austrians, and also with a machine gun called the *mitrailleuse*. But all this was mere boasting. The French people had been living in a fool's paradise. They were as ill-prepared for war as they possibly could be.

Napoleon, whose health was bad, showed no energy or



MAP OF FRANCE AND BELGIUM, ILLUSTRATING FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

decision. He lingered in Paris, hoping against hope that the Austrians would come to his assistance. Fifteen days was supposed to be the period of mobilization; but when the emperor arrived at Metz, on 28th July, he found to his dismay that only 220,000 out of the 400,000 troops promised had joined the colours. While the Paris crowds were parading the streets and shouting themselves hoarse with the cry, "To Berlin! to Berlin!" the reservists were dribbling in; and when they appeared it was discovered that they had not been drilled in the use of the breech-loading rifle, and would not be ready to take the field for weeks. It was also discovered that the officers who had learnt the handling of the new machine guns had been drafted off to other duties, and that those who were in charge of these weapons knew nothing about them.

There were huge stores of food in two or three depots, but there were no means of bringing it rapidly to the army. The transport wagons were in one place, while the wheels lay elsewhere at a distance, and wagons and wheels could not be brought together for weeks. The artillery were short of horses, and the guns could not be moved until horses were borrowed from the cavalry. Only maps of German territory were supplied to the officers; the possibility that the war would be fought out on French soil had not been thought of.

While everything was at sixes and sevens on the French side, the Germans were massing their armies in a perfectly wonderful way. The boast of the French Minister was true as regards them: they were prepared to the last gaiter-button. Every detail had been thought out; every contingency had been foreseen and provided for. By night and day railway trains followed each other to the frontier, laden with soldiers, horses, and guns. In fourteen days nearly 450,000 Germans, well trained, well armed, and well fed, were ready to give battle to the ill-prepared armies of France.

While the German armies were assembling on the Rhine, Napoleon and his generals were powerless to move, and were chopping and changing their plans every day. The Parisians were beginning to growl: "We ought to be across the Rhine by now. Why does the emperor wait?" On the 2nd of August something had to be done to allay the impatience of the French people, and the emperor ordered an advance on Saarbrücken, where a Prussian detachment of thirteen hundred men was stationed. After a fight of three hours the Prussians were driven back; but they retired in good order, and were not pursued, neither was Saarbrücken occupied. Shortly afterwards the tide of German invasion began to roll across the frontier. It consisted of three armies, and comprised 447,000 men. Behind these armies was a first reserve of 188,000 men, ready to be sent forward later, and behind them, again, a second reserve of 160,000 men. In addition, there were 226,000 men to fill the gaps caused by the wastage of war. Von Moltke's plan was that the three armies should march into France separately, and then unite.

At Weissenburg, which you will see on the map almost directly east of Metz, the Third German Army came in contact with the French. MacMahon, the French general, had no idea of how the German forces were disposed, and he had sent but a single division to Weissenburg. This division had to meet a whole German army, and though it struggled gallantly for five hours, it was crushed by overwhelming odds. The emperor and his staff now lost their heads completely; all was confusion and dismay.

The victorious Germans marched southward towards Wörth, where MacMahon was striving to draw his scattered forces together. A careless watch was kept, and early in the morning the marshal was painfully surprised to find himself attacked by a force which greatly outnumbered his own. He was well and strongly posted, and had with him a number of fine Algerian troops; but the enemy attacked with such fierceness that, in spite of the desperate bravery of his men, they could not hold their ground. Under cover of the darkness the remnants of the French army escaped.

The same day witnessed another calamity. The First and Second German Armies had by this time crossed the Rhine, and were marching on Saarbrücken. When the advance guard reached that place, about nine on the morning of 6th August, it discovered that the French, under General Frossard, were strongly entrenched on a plateau with steep, wooded sides. Almost immediately the French guns opened fire, and the German troops at a distance from the battlefield marched "towards the sound of the guns." As each regiment arrived it hurried into action, and one of the most deadly battles of the war began. The French ought to have won. They had enough troops in the neighbourhood to beat back the Germans ; but their commanders had not been trained to act together, and the consequence was that several divisions never came into the fight at all.

When darkness fell Frossard retreated, and the Germans were left masters of the field. They had won a victory of which they were hardly aware. Four days' campaigning had been most disastrous to the French armies. The poor, distracted emperor sent a telegram to Paris, doubtfully declaring "All may yet be regained."

All the three German armies were now on French soil. The Third Army, which formed the German left, was commanded by the Crown Prince, afterwards the Emperor Frederick ; the First Army, on the right, was under old General Steinmetz, who had beaten the Austrians so thoroughly in 1866 ; and the Second Army, forming the centre, was directed by King William's nephew, Prince Charles Frederick of Hohenzollern. The aged King William held supreme command, with Von Moltke as his chief of staff.

The disappointment of the Parisians was extreme, and Napoleon was warned by the empress that unless a victory could be won the throne would be in danger. To prepare for a supreme effort, he ordered Bazaine to retreat on Châlons, the French Aldershot, and there join the remnant of MacMahon's army and a reserve army which was being formed.

At once Bazaine began blundering. While the Germans were sending out their cavalry to scout in all directions, and to pick up information as to the movements of the French, Bazaine was quite ignorant of the doings of the Germans. He ought to have retired on Châlons with all speed, but he wasted much time. Only part of his army was across the Moselle when the Germans attacked his rearguard at a place called Colombey. After a fight of seven hours darkness ended the battle, and the French claimed a victory. Both sides had lost heavily, and Bazaine was wounded for the sixth time in his long career, during which he had fought his way up from private to field-marshal.

The emperor now joined Bazaine's army, and the marshal continued his slow retreat. There were four roads by which he might have marched through the chalk downs to Verdun; but he ordered his whole army, 150,000 strong, to follow a single road until they reached Gravelotte, which stands seven miles west of Metz. The road was hopelessly cumbered with guns and wagons, mounted men and foot soldiers, and this caused great confusion and delay. So long was the column that it took two days and nights to pass a given point. Meanwhile the Germans were gradually encompassing the French from east to south in a quarter circle.

As soon as King William heard of the battle of Colombey, or Borny as the French call it, he ordered his Second Army to cross the Moselle at a point nine or ten miles south of Metz, from which the Roman road runs by way of Verdun to Châlons. When the army reached the river it discovered that the bridges had not been destroyed. It was therefore able to cross unmolested and hasten forward to cut off the French retreat. Not a moment was wasted. On the morning of Tuesday, 16th August, the retreating French encountered the enemy about the villages of Rezonville and Mars-la-Tour. The German troops at first were few in numbers, and had great difficulty in checking Bazaine. A German cavalry brigade made a charge, and by sacrificing itself—after the manner of the British Light Brigade at Balaclava—silenced the French artillery at the crisis of the battle.

Next day the French retired to a line of hills running northward from the road between Metz and Gravelotte. Here they "dug in," and fortified themselves in a strong position. The Germans attacked, but again the battle was indecisive. The hardest fighting was on the French right wing, at St. Privat, which was fiercely assailed for several hours. Attack after attack was made on this place, but none was successful until the defenders ran short of cartridges. Even then they fought most stubbornly with the bayonet in and around the village; but they were overcome at last, and the French line was turned. This meant that the whole French army had to retire behind the forts of Metz.

When Bazaine and his army reached the fortress they discovered that the railway running north had been cut, and that they were surrounded. Two German armies, numbering 160,000 men, were left to hem them in and wait until starvation drove them to surrender. Two other armies were sent to meet MacMahon, who was supposed to be at Châlons. The German cavalry, however, soon discovered that Châlons was deserted: MacMahon had marched north, with what purpose could only be guessed. The cavalry hunted the country for him, and at last found him trying to reach Metz so as to relieve Bazaine.

Had he pushed on with all speed he might have succeeded, and, with the troops in Metz, have formed a strong army capable of facing the Germans once more. But he had wasted ten precious days on the road, and this gave the Germans time to catch him up. They fell upon him unawares, for his watch had been carelessly kept, and his men were cooking their dinners when the advance guards of the enemy burst upon them. To his dismay he found the enemy between him and Metz. He was forced to retreat, and was driven northwards to the town of Sedan, which stands on the Meuse in a corner of the country from which there was no escape unless he crossed the Belgian border. He might have done this, and avoided the onslaught of the Germans; but, as you know, the French had promised not to trespass on Belgian soil, and they kept their word, though it cost them dear.

MacMahon's army was now massed under the walls of Sedan, in a valley known as the "Sink of Givonne," in a sort of horse-shoe line, concave to the enemy. At five next morning, on all the hills around, appeared the dark masses of the German troops. Two hundred and fifty thousand men had come up as stealthily as serpents, and their guns commanded the crowded valley. When they opened fire the result was a massacre. MacMahon fell wounded, and before long the French army was a hopeless, beaten mob.

That night the miserable emperor, who had joined his army at Sedan, sent an aide-de-camp to the King of Prussia proffering his surrender. Next day the fallen emperor and Bismarck met outside a weaver's house on the banks of the Meuse, and arranged terms of capitulation. On 2nd September eighty thousand French soldiers yielded, and they and their emperor were sent to Germany as prisoners.

But what of Bazaine, who was shut up in Metz with 170,000 men? Several times he tried to break out, but in vain. Famine and fever struck down his soldiers every day, and after ten weeks he, too, was obliged to yield. On 27th October he handed over the fortress, 170,000 prisoners, including three marshals of France, and more than fifteen hundred guns. From this second great blow France could not recover.

As soon as MacMahon's army had surrendered at Sedan, the Germans without loss of time began their march on Paris. When the news of the disaster reached the capital, the Parisians deposed the emperor and set up a republic. The new Government at once determined to defend the city to the last. Meanwhile the Germans had surrounded it, and had begun to starve it into submission.

The new French Government, which had its headquarters at Tours, and whose ruling spirit was the patriot Gambetta, now called out every able-bodied man in the country, and strove with all its might to relieve Paris. But the new soldiers, though full of heroism, could not stand against the well-drilled and well-tried soldiers of Germany. One by one the new French armies were defeated, and all hope of relieving the capital vanished. Paris could hold out no longer. On January 30, 1871, she yielded, and the hosts of Germany marched through the streets in triumph. The ruin of France was complete.

Before Paris fell, Bismarck's hour of triumph had arrived. The headquarters of the German armies around Paris was at Versailles, where King William held his court in the palace of the French monarchs. Early in December King Ludwig of Bavaria proposed that a German empire should be established, and that the King of Prussia should be the first German emperor. All the leading states gladly agreed, and on January 18, 1871, the king ascended a dais in the great gallery of the palace, and proclaimed himself German emperor.

On 26th February terms of peace were arranged, and on 10th May a treaty was signed. France had to pay dearly for her defeat. Germany demanded £200,000,000, and ordained that a German army should remain on French soil until this huge sum was paid. It seemed, at first sight, quite impossible for France to find the money; but so rich is her soil, and so thrifty are her peasants, that the whole of it was paid by the end of the year 1873.

To most Frenchmen this was by no means the heaviest blow. When Germany annexed Eastern Lorraine and Alsace, there was the deepest sorrow throughout the land, and thousands of Frenchmen swore that they would never rest until these provinces were recovered. Even Bismarck doubted the wisdom of seizing them. "I do not like so many Frenchmen being in our house against their will," he said. Nevertheless, the German military leaders won over the emperor to their views.

Down to that fateful August day when the Great War began, the statue of Strassburg in the Place de la Concorde in Paris was draped in black and covered with mourning wreaths. When the war broke out, the students tore away the black drapery and replaced it with the French flag. They also removed the mourning wreaths, and put bright, fresh flowers in their places. They believed that the hour had come when the lost provinces would be restored, and the Tricolour would wave once more from the towers of Alsace and Lorraine.

*Read:* "The Last Lesson," by Alphonse Daudet. English translation in Nelson's *Royal Crown Readers*, Book V., p. 194.

## 44. MODERN RUSSIA AND RUMANIA.

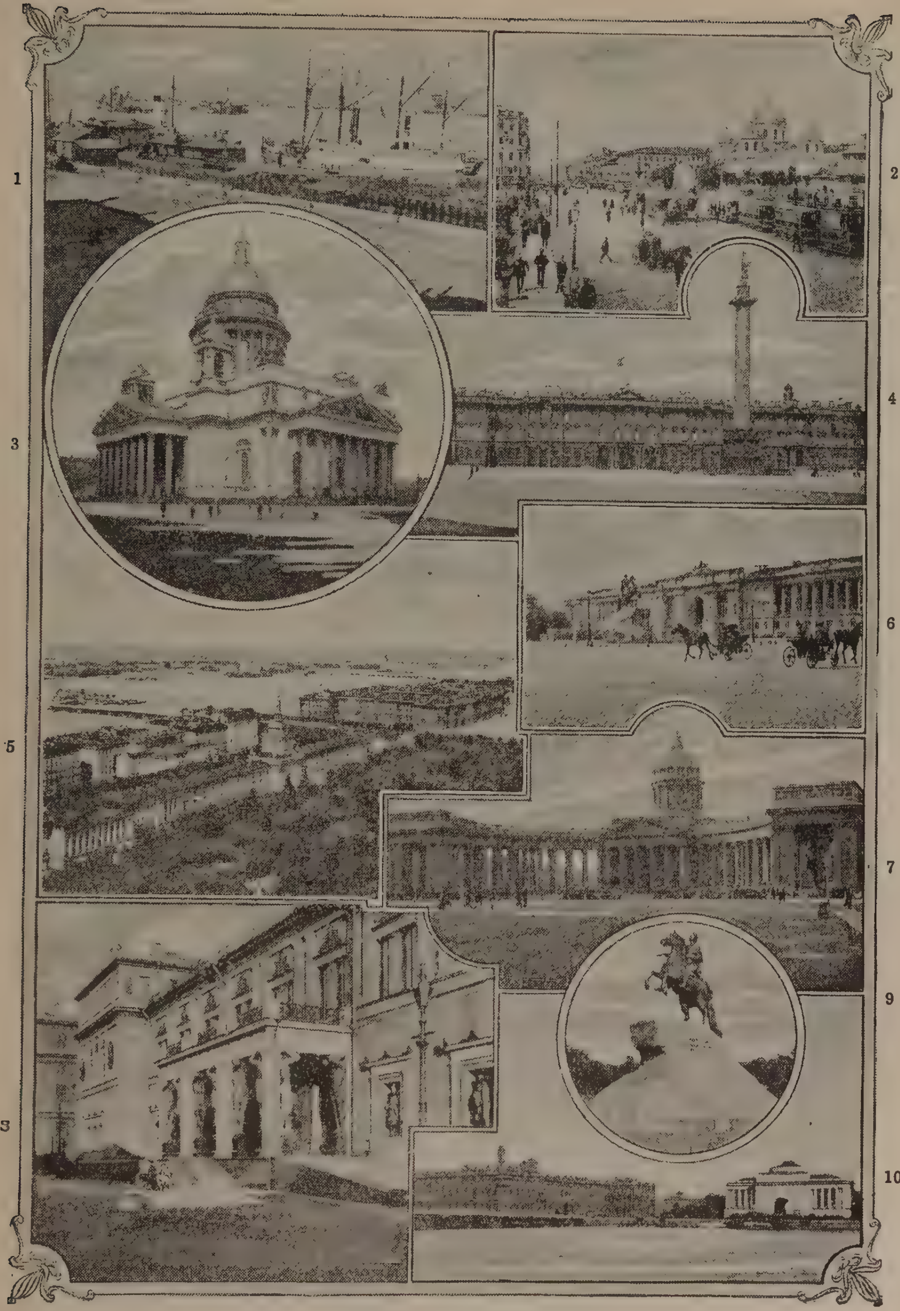
[**Contemporary British Sovereigns:** **Victoria** (1837); **Edward VII.** (1901); **George V.** (1910).]

In this and the following lessons I propose to sum up briefly the history of the European countries from the establishment of the German Empire down to that August day of 1914 when the Kaiser and the German military party precipitated the most terrible and costly struggle ever known to the annals of mankind. In this way I hope to give you a general view of Europe on the eve of the Great War.

We will begin our survey with *Russia*. The Tsar Nicholas I., against whom, you will remember, Britain and France waged the Crimean War, was a despot of the old Russian type. He hated all Western notions, and was a sworn foe to freedom. He had no sympathy with education and progress, and in order to shut out the foreign influences which he despised and feared, actually put a stop to the extension of railways. The great object of his life was to enhance the military greatness of Russia. In this he failed, and the treaty of Paris, which brought the Crimean War to a close after his death saw Russia baffled and humbled.

By this treaty Russia was forced to cede to Rumania a strip of Bessarabia, give up the Danubian provinces which she had occupied, and agree that no ships, whether Russian or belonging to any other Power, should navigate the Black Sea. This neutralizing of the waters washing her southern shores greatly limited Russia's ambitions, and she had no intention of observing this clause of the treaty for all time. Alexander II., who succeeded Nicholas I. in 1855, seized his opportunity during the Franco-Prussian war to declare that he was no longer bound by the clause. France and Germany were too busy to object, and though Great Britain protested, nothing was done. In 1871 the Powers recognized Alexander's declaration, and thus Russia acquired a legal right to place her warships on the Black Sea.

In 1877, as you read in Lesson 41, the Russian army advanced to within sight of Constantinople. The Powers, sus-



VIEWS IN PETROGRAD.

(*Photos 2, 5, and 6 by the Photochrom Company.*)

1. Nicholas Bridge. 2. Place Snamjenskii. 3. St. Isaac's Cathedral. 4. The Winter Palace. 5. Palace of the Admiralty. 6. Palace of the Senate. 7. Kazan Cathedral. 8. The Hermitage Gallery. 9. Statue of Peter the Great. 10. Winter Palace, Military Headquarters, and the Gate of the Admiralty.

picious of Alexander's designs, robbed him of the fruits of his victory. He, however, received back the strip of Bessarabia which had been ceded to Rumania, and was permitted to maintain that hold on Transcaucasia which his generals had won.

Alexander was a rather more humane man than his father, and considerably more favourable to Western ideas. He improved education and the administration of justice, and brought about one splendid reform for which he will ever be remembered. When he ascended the throne the peasants of Russia were serfs—that is, they were bought and sold with the lands on which they laboured. From the time of Catherine II. onwards attempts had been made to free them, but not until the days of Alexander II. were they granted their heart's desire. Between 1858 and 1861 he liberated forty-eight millions of his subjects, and distributed land amongst them which ultimately they were to possess as freeholds.

When, however, this high-minded act encouraged the educated classes to ask for a share in the national government, they were refused, though local assemblies of a popular character were set up. The ancient *Mirs*, or village communities, were given self-government; and *Zemstvos*, corresponding to county councils, were created. Many of the extreme reformers, however, formed secret societies in order to force the Tsar to grant a constitution. The members of these secret societies, who were known as Nihilists because they accepted no authority and took nothing on faith, began a reign of terror, and the Government met violence with violence. Thousands of Nihilists, along with many innocent men and women, were sent to exile in the icy wildernesses of Siberia. Nevertheless, Nihilism was not crushed. Several attempts were made on the Tsar's life; and on March 13, 1881, he was killed by a hand-grenade, which was flung at him as he left his carriage to enter the Winter Palace. This cruel fate was wholly undeserved: he had not only freed the serfs and set up local governing bodies, but at the time of his murder was preparing to summon a national assembly which had not met for over a hundred years.

Under his son, Alexander III., an effort was made to "Russify" the Baltic provinces, Finland (which had been reft from the Swedes in 1809), and the Caucasus. His reign also saw important advances in Central Asia. I need not pursue this part of my story, for the Asiatic rivalry thus brought about between Russia and Britain belongs to the history of our own country.

The most important fact of Alexander's reign was the formation of an alliance with France. When you come to read the story of the Kaiser William II., you will learn that almost as soon as that monarch ascended the throne he began making fiery and warlike speeches, which alarmed both France and Russia. When the Kaiser dismissed Bismarck, there was much strain and friction between Germany and France; and in 1891 it was rumoured far and wide that the Germans had made a secret treaty with Belgium, by which they were to be permitted to pass through that country in order to enter France without having to besiege the strong fortresses which had been constructed on her eastern frontier. The Kaiser kept Europe in a state of uncertainty and suspense, and the outcome was that France and Russia drew together. In October 1893 the Tsar sent a telegram to the President of the French Republic, in which he referred to "the bonds which unite the two countries." When the great blow fell in 1914, France and Russia were firmly allied, and were prepared to stand or fall together.

We now come to the reign of Nicholas II., the last of the Tsars. He ascended the throne in 1894, and continued his father's policy of extending Russian influence in the East. By the year 1860 Russia had expanded in Asia from the Urals to the Sea of Japan, and by 1875 the first section of the Siberian railway had been built, though further construction had been held up by lack of funds. After 1891 the railway was pushed ahead with new vigour; and in September 1896 Russia obtained permission from China to construct the line to Vladivostok across the Chinese province of Manchuria, and to build a branch line which was to run southward to the ice-free Port Arthur, at the tip of the Kwang-tung peninsula. In 1898 China was forced to "lease" Port Arthur and the neighbouring town of Dalny to Russia. It was now clear that the Tsar was about to establish a strong naval base on the Pacific and make it the Gibraltar of the Far East.

In 1900 Russia laid hands on the Amur province, and tried to get China to recognize her as mistress of Manchuria. At once Great Britain and Japan protested. Japan, you must remember, had formed a defensive alliance with Great Britain in 1902. The Japanese had been stung to the quick by the seizure of Port Arthur, which they had captured in a war with China in 1894. The new Russian base threatened their naval power in the Pacific, and was a menace to their very existence as an independent nation. They therefore declared war (February 1904). During the eighteen months' struggle which followed Russia was badly beaten both by land and by sea. Port Arthur was captured after great efforts (January 2, 1905), the Russian army was beaten in the great battle at Mukden (February 27 to March 8, 1905), and a Russian armada sent out to the East was almost annihilated at Tsu-shima (May 27–28, 1905). Nevertheless, when peace was declared, Russia received very generous treatment. The "lease" of Port Arthur and Dalny passed into the hands of Japan, but she asked for no money indemnity.

In the autumn of 1904, when the hapless Russian armada was preparing to leave the Baltic for the East, the Kaiser William made a treacherous attempt to unite Germany, Russia, and France against Great Britain. He pointed out to the Tsar that Britain, in the interests of Japan, would probably place obstacles in the way of coaling the fleet, and that if Russia were to join Germany, France, Russia's ally, would be obliged to join her too, or be left high and dry. In this way a combination would be formed which would be able to defy Britain and Japan. The Tsar nibbled at the bait, but was doubtful whether France could be persuaded to join the Power which had treated her so shamefully thirty-three years previously. The Kaiser, however, brushed his objections aside, and a secret treaty was signed. When, however, it came to light, the Russian Foreign Minister refused to be a party to any such arrangement, and the treaty fell through.

What was known as the Dogger Bank affair took place in the middle of October, when the Russian fleet was passing through the North Sea on the way to the Pacific Ocean. Some of the highly-nervous Russian captains, sighting what they imagined to be Japanese torpedo boats off the Dogger Bank, fired upon them, and sank some of them. They were inoffensive British fishing vessels. At once the British Government demanded an explanation. For a moment there was danger of war, but finally it was agreed that commissioners from France, the United States, and Austria-Hungary should inquire into the affair. The commissioners decided in favour of Britain, and Russia had to pay her £65,000.

The reverses which the Russian army and navy suffered in the war with Japan revealed clearly the defects of the Tsar's personal government. There was much unrest, and loud demands were made for a parliament. Nicholas, however, had not sufficient vision to perceive that the old days of one-man rule had gone for ever, and that no measures of violence could avail against a people determined to be free. He tried repression, and soon the people were in open revolt. He was now forced to give way and permit a Duma, or elected parliament, to be set up (1906).

When he granted the Duma he promised that it should take a constant and active part in law-making; but as soon as it began to assert itself he became alarmed for his personal power, and dissolved it. A new Duma was elected, and he proceeded to whittle away its rights, until it was little more than the shadow of a parliament. Every intelligent man in Russia knew that, sooner or later, there would be an uprising which would give the country a parliament as free and as powerful as our own. When the Great War broke out all parties in Russia united to oppose Germany; but in the third year of the struggle the long-expected revolution took place. The Tsar was deposed, and a period of chaos set in.

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I must now tell you something of the modern history of *Rumania*, the buffer state between Russia and the Danube. The provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia, which formed the kingdom of Rumania at the beginning of the Great War, were separate principalities in the fourteenth century. There could be no Rumanian kingdom until these two principalities were united. In 1821, when the Greeks rose against the Turks and began their struggle for independence, the Rumanians, inspired by their example, rose too, and a terrible time of blood and anguish set in. The revolt failed, but it led to an improvement in the condition of the people: the Turks agreed to let each principality elect its own prince. In the "year of revolution" there was another fierce rising; but though it was put down by Turkish and Russian bayonets, the national spirit had caught fire, and nothing could quench it. In 1861 the Powers forced the Sultan to consent to the union of Moldavia and Wallachia under one ruler.

The Rumanians elected a Moldavian noble as their first prince; but in 1866 he was deposed, and Prince Carol of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen was elected in his stead. During the Russo-Turkish War of 1877 Prince Carol and his troops fought bravely on the side of Russia. On the battlefields of Bulgaria Carol won independence for his adopted country, and in 1881 was crowned king with an iron crown made from guns captured at Plevna. During the Balkan Wars, which I shall describe in the next lesson, he attacked Bulgaria, and at the peace received a strip of land on the south side of the Danube between the river and the sea.

Though the Rumanians had won their independence and had set up a kingdom, they had their "unredeemed Rumania," just as the Italians had their "unredeemed Italy." This "unredeemed Rumania" was the province of Transylvania, forming part of Hungary, and lying on the western slopes and foothills of the wooded Carpathians. The Rumanians had an excellent right to this country; none better. It was stolen from them in the old days, and, for the most part, is still inhabited by Rumanians. There are many races in Transylvania, but the Rumanians comprise about sixty per cent. of the total population. Their rulers, the Magyars, only number about one in four of the inhabitants, and for many years past their rule has been harsh and unjust. The Rumanians have always been eager to liberate their kinsmen from the Magyar yoke, and add their old possession to their present kingdom. It was this ardent desire which led the Rumanians to throw in their lot with the Allies after the Great War had been raging two years.

King Carol was a German, married to a German wife, and he naturally strove to bring about friendly relations between the land of his birth and his adopted country. During the forty-four years of his reign Germany became all-powerful in the finance and trade of Rumania. She lent the Rumanian Government more than thirty millions of money, built railways, improved the ports, and managed to get most of the oil-fields and forests into her hands. Rumania was thus drawn very close to Germany, and in 1883 she joined what is known as the Triple Alliance—a league formed by Germany, Austria, and Italy. We shall hear more about this Triple Alliance in later lessons.

Rumanian friendship with Germany, therefore, meant friendship with Austria-Hungary, and this was not at all to the liking of the Rumanian people. They hated the Hungarians bitterly, and they would have preferred to ally themselves with Russia and France; but they had no say in the matter. They looked across the mountains, and saw the Rumanians of Transylvania under the Magyar yoke—forbidden to use their own language, punished for remaining true to the Greek Church, and juggled out of their parliamentary rights. As you know, they greatly longed to set free their enslaved kinsmen, and they therefore formed societies to keep the flame of this national desire burning.

In the early days of August 1914 Rumania had to make up her mind whether she would join in the war or remain neutral. King Carol, as a German, wished to join the Central Powers; and he considered that Rumania was bound by the Triple Alliance to go to the help of Austria. But the members of his Government took a different view. They said that they had agreed to help Austria only if she were attacked; Austria was the attacking party, and not the party attacked. The upshot was that the Government decided to remain neutral, and the king was forced to agree. Two months later (October 10, 1914) he died. It is said that his end was hastened by his bitter disappointment.

The new king was his nephew Ferdinand, who had married a daughter of the Duke of Edinburgh, a granddaughter of Queen Victoria. Ferdinand had no special liking for Germany, and his wife made no secret of her sympathy with her native country and with France and Russia. Rumania, though neutral, gradually drew nearer and nearer to the Allies. The story of how she ultimately joined them, and of the disasters which she suffered in consequence, belongs to the history of the Great War.

*Read :* Jules Verne's *Michael Strogoff* (Nelson).

## 45. THE BALKANS.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns**: **Victoria** (1837); **Edward VII.** (1901); **George V.** (1910).]

I NOW turn to the painful history of the Balkan States after the Treaty of Berlin. The Balkan peninsula may be described as the powder magazine of Europe. It is filled with explosive elements, and at any time a spark is sufficient to bring about a conflagration. Consider for a moment the many and diverse interests struggling for mastery within its bounds, and the hostile influences exerted from outside by certain great Powers desirous of furthering their own selfish designs. When our survey opens, the dominant power in the peninsula is still Asiatic ; the Turk, whose only ideas of government are fraud, robbery, and massacre, is still master of much of the country, and is sullenly wrathful with the despised Christian races which are still under his yoke or have wrenched themselves free from his grasp.

These states, all imbued with Western ideas, are jealous and prone to quarrel. The Serbs, passionate and ambitious, are eager to extend their country to the west and the south; the Bulgars, dour and industrious, are equally covetous of increased power ; while the quick and subtle Greeks are also bent on winning extended influence and territory. Though there is a deep and broad chasm between the Christians and the Mohammedans, the Christians, on their side of the gulf, are sundered by many serious rifts. Then come the outside Powers, some of them only animated by a desire to see peace and order and good government established in the peninsula; others intent on fishing in the troubled waters.

We shall see Russia, still eager to realize her old ambition, aiming at the downfall of Turkey; and Germany, with even vaster ambitions, taking the "sick man" under her wing, and giving him those tonics which enable him to reassert himself once more. War will break out, and at the moment when the sick man appears to be in his death-throes, Germany will foment quarrels amongst the victors and save him from destruction. Then, in the midst of the embittered and exhausted states, Germany will rise supreme. She will emerge master of Turkey, and the German kings of Bulgaria and Greece will be ready to range themselves under her banner. Then will come the hour when the German emperor is ready to realize those grandiose dreams of Eastern empire which he has long cherished.

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I have already given you an outline of Turkish history down to the Treaty of Berlin (1878). By that treaty the Sultan promised to protect the Christians in his dominions, and to admit them to the public offices of the State. The Armenian Christians were specially mentioned in the treaty, but before long the old massacres began again. In 1896 thousands of Armenians were butchered in the streets of Constantinople itself. The Powers protested, and there was much indignation in Great Britain. Mr. Gladstone came out of his retirement for the last time to denounce the barbarous rule of the Sultan; but the Powers were too distrustful of each other to use force. Some slight measures of reform were introduced in 1897, but the condition of the Christians under Turkish dominion was still almost intolerable.

In the same year the Powers combined in what was called the European Concert, and tried to make the Sultan carry out his promises of reform in the island of Crete, where his Christian and Mohammedan subjects were in a continual state of civil war. The Sultan did nothing, and the Powers themselves tried to enforce order. The Greeks, who declared that the Christians of the island desired union with them, sent naval and military forces to Crete; whereupon the Sultan marched an army to the Greek frontier. War began in April, and by the end of the month the Turks were victorious. They were, however, not allowed to take much territory from the conquered country. The Powers stepped in, and only permitted them to improve their frontier by the addition of some small strips of Thessaly. This successful war set Turkey on its legs again, and everywhere in the Turkish Empire Christians were barbarously treated. The " sick man " was still far from death.

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By the Treaty of Berlin *Serbia* was given a large amount of new territory, including Nish, the old capital, and was created a kingdom. Her first king, Milan I., belonged to a famous native family. On his death, in 1901, he was succeeded by his son Alexander, who, with his queen, was assassinated two years later. His successor was King Peter, who traced his descent from Black George, a hero who fought bravely against the Turks at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Peter was the reigning sovereign of Serbia when the Great War began.

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*Montenegro* (or the Land of the Black Mountain), which had never recognized Turkish sovereignty, had its frontiers slightly extended by the Treaty of Berlin. In 1910 its prince, Nicholas, took the title of king. He was still reigning at his little capital, Cetinje, when the Great War broke out.

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Now let us turn for a moment to *Bulgaria*, which owed its independence almost solely to Russia. You will remember that by the Treaty of Berlin Bulgaria was not to extend south of the Balkan Mountains, and that the province of Eastern Rumelia was to be nominally subject to the authority of the Sultan. The same treaty gave the Russians control of the country for nine months, and during this time they strove to make Bulgaria as Russian as possible, and keep it so for all time. Prince Alexander of Battenberg, who was set on the throne, greatly resented the interference of the Russians in his government, and, in defiance of the Tsar, gave his people a constitution (1883). Two years later, without a drop of blood being shed, the southern Bulgarians of Eastern Roumelia joined the northern Bulgarians, and formed a Greater Bulgaria, with Alexander as their prince. In 1886 the Powers agreed to this union, but only for a term of five years.

In the same year Russia engineered a military plot against Alexander, whose palace was surrounded at midnight by a mutinous regiment. The prince was forced to yield up his throne, and was driven to the Danube, where he was put on board his own yacht and carried down stream to Russian territory. When the kidnapping of the king became known, the people insisted on recalling him. He returned to Sofia, only to find Russia and Germany opposed to him. He therefore called his officers about him, and finally abdicated. Russia strove hard to maintain the advantage which she had thus won; but the people were determined to have a ruler of their own choice, and in July 1887 Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg was elected prince. In 1908 he declared Bulgaria an independent kingdom, and became its first Tsar. Ferdinand set himself to build up an army, and before long it was one of the best trained and best equipped in Europe.

Serbia had watched the rise of Bulgaria with much jealousy, and had even drawn the sword against her in 1885, but had suffered defeat. In the year 1908 she saw a Greater Bulgaria come into existence, and was deeply stirred by Austria's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Not only had she a strong Balkan Power on her eastern frontier, but she was prevented by Austria's action from expanding westward and taking under her wing the kindred peoples that lay between her and the Adriatic Sea. These peoples eagerly desired to form part of a Greater Serbia, and before long they were in secret revolt against their Austrian masters, with whom they had no affinity of race or religion. The Serbians were well aware that the most masterful man in the Austrian Empire, the Archduke Ferdinand, meant to push Austrian power through Macedonia to the sea. If he were allowed to carry out his designs, Serbia might bid farewell to any hope of expansion southward.

THE TURKS IN RETREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF LULE BURGAS (NOV. 1, 1912).

*(By permission of the Illustrated London News.)*

Now that we know something of these two ambitious states, let us see what was happening in Turkey. Even in that backward country there were the stirrings of reform. About the year 1900, what is known as the "Young Turk" party began to agitate for parliamentary government and for the restoration of Turkish power throughout the peninsula. In December 1908 a parliament was set up, and four months later the Sultan was deposed and exiled in favour of his younger brother. During these changes confusion became worse confounded, and Germany turned the position to her own advantage. She lent money lavishly to the Government, constructed railways and irrigation works, and managed to get the army trained by German officers on German methods. Before the Great War Turkey was practically a province of Germany.

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Now let us turn to *Greece*. After her defeat by the Turks in 1897 she began to reorganize her army. Her king at this time was George—"Papa George," as his people called him—a Danish prince who had succeeded the Bavarian Otto in 1863. His eldest son, and his successor in 1913, was Constantine. As a young man he was an empty, selfish fellow, of no ability and little education. In the war against Turkey his conduct was so cowardly that his father sent him to Germany, where the Kaiser trained him as a soldier and imbued him with his own ideas of absolute rule. He became a fervent admirer of the Kaiser, and married his sister. Before long he was little more than the Kaiser's puppet.

During the troubles in Crete the great patriot and statesman, Eleutherios Venizelos, came to the front. So successful was he in Crete that he was invited by the Greek National Assembly to Athens, and in 1911 became Prime Minister of Greece. In March 1912 Serbia and Bulgaria and Montenegro signed a secret treaty, binding themselves to make war on Turkey, and also on Austria and Rumania if they should interfere. Venizelos approved of this alliance, for he knew that there could be no peace and progress in the Balkans until Ottoman misrule was overthrown. He therefore joined the alliance on behalf of Greece.

The four states, which were now united in a Balkan League, demanded that Turkey should carry out her promised reforms in Macedonia. To this Turkey responded by declaring war on Serbia and Bulgaria (17th October). Next day Greece declared war on Turkey. Montenegro had already taken up arms. The Germans falsely declared that the Balkan League was a Russian plot for the purpose of destroying Turkey and doing away with German influence.

I need not describe the war in detail. The Bulgars invaded Thrace, the Serbs marched into Macedonia, and the Greeks fought campaigns in Epirus and Southern Macedonia The result was a rapid and complete defeat of Turkey. In November the Greeks entered Salonika, the Serbs captured Monastir, and the main Bulgarian army drove the Turks from Lüle-Burgas in headlong rout behind the fortified lines which protect Constantinople. By 16th December the Powers had begun negotiations in London, and the Turks seemed willing to make peace. Suddenly, on January 23, 1913, there was a revolution in Constantinople, and a well-known Young Turk named Enver Bey seized the reins of power. He had been attached to the Turkish Embassy at Berlin, and had been made much of by the Kaiser.

The Peace Conference broke up, and war was resumed. Again the Leaguers won victories. The Greeks captured Janina, the Bulgars Adrianople, and the Montenegrins Scutari. Again the Peace Conference met, and plainly told the Serbs and Montenegrins that they would not be allowed to retain any part of Albania. This was a great blow to Serbia ; but she finally decided to give up Albania and demand a larger part of Macedonia than had been agreed upon between her and Bulgaria. The result was a quarrel between the Serbs and the Bulgars.

The treacherous Tsar Ferdinand, hoping to steal a march on his rivals, now made a sudden attack upon the Greeks and Serbs at what he thought would be the weakest part of their line. When the attack began, the Bulgars found to their surprise that the Greeks were ready for them. The fact was that the German Kaiser, who had arranged the whole plan, had secretly and treacherously told Constantine how to meet the attack. The Greek king won a victory, and was thereafter regarded by his subjects as a heaven-born general. The Bulgars were overwhelmed on all sides, and the Turks, seizing the opportunity, recovered some of the ground which they had lost. Peace was signed on August 10, 1913, at Bucharest. I need not trouble you with the territorial gains of the Allies; they are indicated in the coloured map, which shows Europe on the eve of the Great War. You will notice that the Turks retained Adrianople.

The Peace of Bucharest was a triumph for Germany. We shall see in a later lesson that she was aiming at power in Asia Minor, and that Turkey was to be her jumping-off place. Had the Leaguers driven out the Turks "bag and baggage," Germany would have had no foothold in the peninsula. Now, however, Turkey was safe, and wholly in Germany's power. Further, the war had exhausted Serbia, and it was assumed that she would be unable to resist when the Kaiser gave the signal for that Great War which he had long been contemplating. Ferdinand of Bulgaria, now bitterly angry with Serbia, would be sure to fight for him; and as for Constantine of Greece, the Kaiser and his sister could sway the poor puppet as they pleased. Less than a year later the greatest war of history had begun.

*Read:* Lionel James's *With the Conquered Turk* (Nelson).

## 46. ITALY AND THE SMALLER POWERS.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: Victoria** (1837); **Edward VII.** (1901); **George V.** (1910).]

When Victor Emmanuel entered Rome, and Italy was at last united from the Alps to the southernmost cape of Sicily, the great object of his life was attained. Thereafter he devoted himself to the work of welding together his long and much divided kingdom. His successor, Humbert, a generous, well-meaning man, but by no means great, continued this work, and won the affection of his people. It was during his reign that what is known as the Triple Alliance was formed.

Down to the year 1878 Italy was more in sympathy with France and Britain than with the Central Powers of Germany and Austria. She had the same ideas of liberty and progress, and was grateful to Britain for helping her to secure her freedom. But in 1881 she suffered a great disappointment. She had long regarded Tunis, on the opposite African coast, as a country which she had a right to possess, for more than fifty thousand Italians had settled in it. In 1881, however, France, instigated by Bismarck, and with the sanction, so it was said, of Great Britain, occupied Tunis, and Italy naturally felt much aggrieved. She thought that France and Britain had been unjust, and that she would stand a much better chance of securing what she thought to be her rights if she joined Germany and Austria. On May 20, 1882, the Italian Government signed a treaty with these Powers, and the Triple Alliance came into being. It was renewed in 1887, in 1891, and again in 1912.

In 1915, for the first time, we learned something of this treaty of alliance. The most important article was to this effect: If one or more of the Great Powers, *without being provoked*, should attack one or two of the parties to the treaty, and war should result, then Germany, Austria, and Italy would make common cause against the attackers. If, however, one Great Power should threaten the security of one of the parties to the treaty, and war should result, then the other two parties were to be free to remain neutral, or to join in the war, just as they wished. Though Italy had made a treaty of friendship with Austria, you must not suppose that the old enmity between the two countries had passed away. Italy thought it prudent to link herself with Germany, and by so doing had to accept Austria as an ally. It was a marriage of convenience, and not of affection.

From 1908 onwards the Italians found the Triple Alliance more and more distasteful. One of the articles in the treaty pledged the parties not to attempt to win influence and territory in the Balkans without first coming to an agreement with each other. Nevertheless, Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, and in various other ways sacrificed the interests of Italy. As a result Italy very nearly declared war on Austria. In 1911, during a quarrel with Turkey, the Italians seized Tripoli, the neighbouring province to Tunis. This action helped the Balkan States, and they attacked Turkey almost immediately. When the Great War broke out the Triple Alliance was very shaky, and Italy declared herself neutral because the Central Powers had provoked the war. In May 1916 she went further, and declared war on her old enemy, Austria.

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The modern history of *Spain* need not delay us long; it is still the story of decline. When, in 1814, her king, Ferdinand VII., was restored, he found that his subjects had set up a new constitution in his absence. Ferdinand, as might be expected, was a whole-hearted supporter of that system of oppression brought about by the Holy Alliance, and one of his first acts was to sweep this constitution away. He and his advisers thought that if they put back the hand of the clock they could also make the shadow go back on the sun-dial. The king ruled in the spirit of a spiteful school bully. He appointed and dismissed thirty ministers in twenty months, and consigned most of them to a dungeon. The French soldiers who had fought in Spain had brought with them revolutionary ideas; the country was in abject misery, and the colonies had "cut the painter." A revolt broke out in 1820, and Ferdinand was forced to accept the constitution. Two years later France, now under a reactionary government, sent 100,000 soldiers to Spain. They crossed the frontier, the revolutionaries were crushed, and Ferdinand ruled as a despot once more.

Ferdinand died in 1833, leaving an infant daughter, Isabella. His wife became regent, and she endeavoured to carry on the government in the old absolute way; but soon found the task impossible, for nearly the whole of the Conservative party had rallied to Don Carlos, the late king's brother, who claimed the throne. The queen could hope to rule only with the help

MORRO CASTLE, HAVANA, CUBA.

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of the Liberals, whom Ferdinand had persecuted and banished. A long civil war followed, in which Don Carlos and his partisans, who were known as Carlists, were beaten. Then began a time of great confusion. The queen regent agreed to set up a Parliament, but took care that it should be powerless. The land was torn with tumult and strife, and once more the Carlists made a bid for the throne. Again there was much bloodshed. The queen regent was driven out, and a bold but muddle-headed soldier named Espartero made himself dictator. Three years later he was overthrown by a military mutiny.

Isabella, who now became queen in her own right, was never more than a child in mind, and things went from bad to worse. In 1854 a revolution shook her throne, and a second rising in 1868 drove her over the Pyrenees. Then set in another period of confusion, during which a limited monarchy of three different types, a republic, and a military dictatorship were tried. At length, in 1875, Isabella's only son, Alfonso XII., was placed on the throne. Some reforms were carried out, though the so-called statesmen still remained hopelessly corrupt. The two party leaders actually came to an understanding with the king, by which they should rotate in office, and the spoils should be fairly divided between them and their followers. Alfonso died in the odour of unpopularity in 1885.

In 1886 his son, the present king, Alfonso XIII., was born. His mother, who acted as regent, devoted herself to him, and by her careful and correct attitude towards politics avoided strife. The country began to prosper. In 1898 came a great blow, and before the end of the year Spain had closed her Colonial Office, because she had no more colonies to administer. The last remnants of her great American empire had vanished.

Her government of Cuba and Porto Rico was backward and corrupt, and the islands were in an almost continuous state of revolution. In 1895 the final revolt began, and the governor endeavoured to suppress it by methods which were cruel and caused much misery. The United States Government could no longer look on unmoved at the disorder on its threshold. It sent warships to Havana, and in February 1898 one of them—

the *Maine*—was destroyed by a mysterious explosion. This precipitated the war that had long been threatening.

The conflict was soon over. The wretchedly equipped squadron which the Spaniards sent to Cuba was utterly destroyed at Santiago. American soldiers were landed, and there was some fighting, in which the Spanish troops showed that they could defend positions stoutly. The contest, however, was hopeless, and Spain surrendered. She lost both her West Indian islands and the Philippines as well.

The loss of her last colonial possessions was not without its advantages for Spain. Her colonies had long been a burden to her. She now set to work to improve her home conditions, and for the first time gave herself diligently to the task of developing the home country. Political conflicts abated, but social and labour troubles began. Anarchist outrages, peasant revolts, and riots leading to much bloodshed were common, and have continued down to the present day. Martial law had to be proclaimed in 1911, and constitutional government suspended.

Spain still remains the one country of Europe which has contributed nothing in modern times to its own progress. A famous Spanish novelist has said truly that his country has been dragged along by Europe. There are, however, hopeful signs. Spain has much to learn, and as she is now going to school again, she has the chance of becoming a prosperous and progressive state. She remained neutral during the Great War.

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The story of modern *Portugal*, if not so chaotic as that of Spain, is mainly a record of civil strife and misrule. John VI., who returned from Brazil to the mother country in 1820, was wise enough to give his people a parliament on the British model. Having done so, he resigned the crown of Portugal to his infant daughter Maria, and that of Brazil to Dom Pedro, its first emperor. The child's uncle, who was named as regent, seized the throne for himself; but in 1831 Pedro, with the assistance of a British fleet, drove out the usurper. During Maria's reign the country suffered from bad government and political unrest, which continued in the times of her sons Pedro V. and Luiz I. During the reign of the latter king Portugal discovered that her African territories, which hitherto she had regarded as worthless, were very valuable possessions. In Africa she still retains territory covering nearly 800,000 square miles—more than twenty times the area of the mother country. In addition, she possesses colonies in India, China, and the Malay Archipelago, of about the same extent. All these foreign possessions are the legacies of her old explorers.

In 1889 Carlos I. became king. At a time of distress which occurred a few years later he gave up a fifth of his income to the nation. In 1908, as he and the Crown Prince were driving in Lisbon, both were assassinated. His second son was proclaimed king as Manuel II., but two years later a revolution took place: the king was forced to seek refuge in England, and a republic was established which still continues, in spite of royalist risings. When the Great War broke out Portugal's sympathies were with Britain, which has always been her friend. Further, German aims at world conquest threatened her great colonial empire. For these reasons she threw in her lot with the Allies, and declared war upon the Central Powers in March 1916.

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I have already told you how *Belgium* was united with Holland by the Congress of Vienna, and how she broke away in 1830. The first king of the busy little state was Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. From the year 1832 down to the morning of Tuesday, August 4, 1914, Belgium enjoyed the blessings of peace, and became, for her size, one of the most prosperous countries of Europe. She was, however, much divided by political strife, chiefly due to the growth of Socialism and to quarrels between those who supported the power of the Roman Catholic Church and those who opposed it.

As in the case of Holland, Belgium is the sea-gate of the busy and populous countries lying to the east and south. Across Belgium is the shortest road to the sea from the great industrial districts of Germany along the Rhine. It is also the natural outlet for the cottons and woollens and other products of North France. A vast stream of foreign trade, mainly

German, flowed through the country; and this was one of the main reasons of its prosperity, though its own iron-working industries were very important. For many years prior to the Great War Germany had not concealed her covetous desire to possess the country, and to secure for herself Antwerp and the ports on the North Sea. Holland she had long regarded as a "brave little bit of the Fatherland."

Leopold died in 1865, and was succeeded by his son, Leopold II., in whose reign what is known as the "scramble for Africa" began. In 1877, when Sir Henry Stanley returned from his great journey down the Congo River, Leopold became much interested, and supplied Stanley with funds from his private purse to continue his explorations, and to found an association for developing the new territories. A Congo Free State was established between 1885 and 1906, and the Powers recognized it. Leopold was its sole owner until 1908, when he handed it over to Belgium. After 1901 there were many complaints as to bad treatment of the natives; but reforms were instituted nine years later.

Leopold died in 1909, and was succeeded by his nephew, Prince Albert, the present king. The new king was a great contrast to his predecessor. He was a student, a social and industrial reformer, and a man of high moral character. When he became king, the Flemings of the northern provinces and the Walloons of the southern provinces were so opposed to each other that it seemed likely that they would set up separate governments. Albert, however, acted as umpire and peacemaker, and by his wisdom and tact saved Belgium from this disaster. So popular did he become that the Belgian Socialists said, "When Belgium becomes a republic, Albert will be its first president." He also laboured hard to reform his army. His uncle had clearly seen that, sooner or later, a war cloud would burst over Europe, and had persuaded Parliament to build forts along the Meuse, and to increase the army. In 1914, when the war cloud burst, the reforms had not been completed.

The story of how this little kingdom, blameless in the eyes of God and man, was set upon and trampled under foot by Germany, in defiance of her solemn promise to preserve its

KING ALBERT OF BELGIUM.

(*Photo, Newspaper Illustrations Limited.*)

neutrality, and simply for the sake of falling upon France rapidly and easily, belongs to the history of the Great War.

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A few words will suffice to sum up the modern history of *Holland.* "Happy is the nation that has no history." Since 1830, when Holland and Belgium dissolved the partnership that had been forced on them by the Congress of Vienna, Holland has enjoyed a long reign of European peace, during which political problems alone have agitated her. Nevertheless she has had to fight long and exhausting wars in her Eastern possessions, and the strain has entailed heavy taxation at home. Holland still remains one of the leading colonial Powers. Her foreign empire, which with the exception of Dutch Guiana is wholly in the East Indies, covers an area of 735,000 square miles. Her present sovereign is Queen Wilhelmina, who belongs to the old House of Orange. She came to the throne, as a girl, in 1890, and married a German prince in 1901. Her daughter, the Princess Juliana, is heir to the throne. Holland remained neutral during the Great War in spite of constant provocation on the part of Germany.

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*Denmark*, since she lost Schleswig-Holstein, as described on page 313, has also enjoyed external peace, and has made remarkable progress in agriculture by dint of careful organization and co-operation amongst her farmers. She sold her islands in the West Indies to the United States in 1917, but still retains Iceland and more than 45,000 square miles of Greenland. Her king, Christian IX., who reigned from 1863 to 1906, was called the father of European kings; his second son, George, became the first king of liberated Greece; his daughter, Alexandra, married Edward VII. of Great Britain and Ireland, and became the mother of the present king; another daughter, Dagmar, became the wife of Alexander III. and the mother of Nicholas II., the last of the Tsars; and a son became King of Norway. The present king is Christian X., who succeeded his father, Frederick VIII., in 1912. Denmark was neutral during the Great War.

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You will remember that by the Union of Kalmar (1397) Denmark, Norway, and Sweden became united under one crown. This union was mischievous to all the three kingdoms, especially to *Norway*, which, though in theory an independent kingdom, was reduced to the position of a mere Danish province. In 1810, when Napoleon was supreme in Europe, he persuaded the Swedish Parliament to elect Bernadotte, one of his marshals, as Crown Prince of Sweden. Four years later Sweden was permitted to annex Norway, not, however, without much discontent in the western country. Denmark was forced to agree to this new arrangement, and thus the whole Scandinavian peninsula fell into the hands of the Swedish king. The story of Norway since 1814 is mainly an account of the efforts which she made to cut herself off from Sweden.

Bernadotte, who became king as Charles XIV. in 1818, proved to be a good if masterful ruler, and under him Sweden made great advances in trade and agriculture. His successor, Oscar I., was a good-natured, easy-going man, who showed friendship to Norway; but in the very first year of the reign of Charles XV. (1859) the Norwegians demanded a viceroy. This was refused, and the feeling between the two countries became so bitter that war seemed to be on the point of breaking out. Happily, in 1905, the union was dissolved peacefully, and Norway became independent. Prince Charles of Denmark was elected king as Haakon VII. In 1896 he married the Princess Maud, youngest sister of our King George. During the Great War Norway remained neutral.

Little more need be said about *Sweden*. I told you on a former page that in 1809 the Grand Duchy of Finland, which had been conquered by Swedes between the twelfth and fourteenth centuries, was seized by Russia. The Swedes have never forgiven the Russians for taking this province from them, and they have always been uneasy lest Russia should covet further territory, especially on the north coast. Their statesmen have frequently referred to Russia as "our only enemy." This fear and hatred of Russia made them friendly with Germany, and during the Great War, in which they remained neutral, the sympathies of the ruling classes were with the Central Powers. There was plentiful evidence to show that the Swedish Government permitted its foreign agents to act on behalf of Germany in a manner which showed that it was "willing to wound, and yet afraid to strike."

*Read :* Herbert Hayens's *The British Legion* (Nelson).

## 47. AUSTRIA-HUNGARY SINCE 1870.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns ; Victoria** (1837) ; **Edward VII.** (1901) ; **George V.** (1910).]

In the course of a speech at the beginning of the Great War, Mr. Lloyd George spoke of Austria-Hungary as a "ramshackle" empire. No description could be more apt. In this great composite state there are eight distinct Slav races, as well as Germans, Italians, Magyars, Jews, Armenians, and Gipsies. Though under one sovereign, these races are anything but united. They have no common religion, language, or fatherland. Some ten languages are spoken, and four separate alphabets are in use. The monarchy includes, besides Austria proper, Bohemia, Hungary, Galicia, Dalmatia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. Of these countries, Hungary alone retains its king, and he is Emperor of Austria.

Hungary especially is a museum of races. The Magyars, who are said to be kinsmen of the Finns, number less than one-half of the population. Every Magyar believes himself to be noble, and all are proud and intensely devoted to their native land. "Life outside Hungary," they say, "is not life." They have no taste for trade, but they love politics, and are born gamblers. There are three Slav races in Hungary—the Croatian, the Slovak, and the Ruthenian. The Germans are the most industrious section of the population, and they and the Jews carry on the commerce of the country. The

Serbs, who are found in the extreme south, are very alert and full of energy. The Gipsies form a very picturesque group. Many of them have settled down, and make excellent blacksmiths and wonderful musicians. Some twenty thousand of them roam from place to place. One-half of the people are Roman Catholics and one-fifth are Protestants.

With such a mixture of races, creeds, and languages there are sure to be strong differences of aim and opinion. The Magyars, the ruling race of Hungary, are slow to give the other races the rights which they themselves enjoy. The ruling race in Austria is the German; and, strange to say, in both countries the most powerful section of the people is in a minority. Between Austria and Hungary there is no love lost. Each country has its own parliament, and equal numbers of representatives from each are chosen to decide upon those matters which are common to both. The army is common to Austria and Hungary, but even in its management there is little unity. Before the Great War the Magyars were greatly annoyed at the use of German words of command for Hungarian troops. Nothing keeps Austria and Hungary in union but the common bond of the king-emperor.

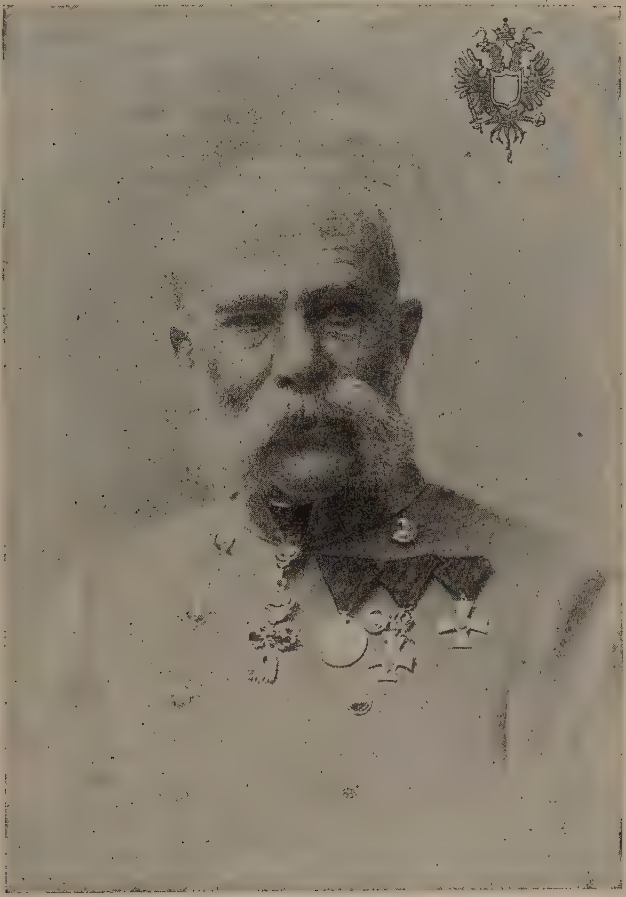
As you know, the story of Austria is the history of a family and not of a state. Let me remind you that, in the year 1272, the electors of Germany chose as emperor a count of somewhat lowly rank and poor fortune, named Rudolf of Hapsburg. Rudolf surprised the princes by showing himself a resolute and ambitious man. He overcame the King of Bohemia, and seized his archduchy of Austria. Thenceforward down to the present time the history of Austria is the history of the Hapsburg family.

By prudent marriages, and by bargains and arrangements of all sorts, the Hapsburgs gathered to themselves crowns and coronets all over Europe. The kingdoms of Spain, Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia fell to them; as also did Hungary and the rich Netherlands. In the sixteenth century, however, their dominions were divided between the Austrian and Spanish branches of the family. In 1700 the last Hapsburg King of Spain died without an heir; and, after the war which was waged for the succession, the Spanish crown passed to the Bourbons. The Austrian Hapsburgs continued to be Holy Roman Emperors until 1806, when the West German states united under the protection of Napoleon, and freed themselves from Austrian influence. The title "Holy Roman Emperor" was thus rendered absurd, and the empty honour was resigned by Francis II. Thenceforward the Hapsburg monarchs had to be content with the title of Emperor of Austria.

After the fall of Napoleon, Metternich became the ruling spirit in Austria, and under him the emperor became an absolute monarch. In the "year of revolution" Francis Joseph ascended the throne, and continued to wear the purple until the second year of the Great War. The modern history of Austria-Hungary is, therefore, entirely confined to his reign.

Probably no sovereign was ever called upon to suffer so much as Francis Joseph. His reign began in tumult and strife, and ended in the greatest war known to mankind. He fought hard against modern ideas of self-government, but was forced to yield to them. It has been said that Austria possesses the genius of defeat; the reign of Francis Joseph was one long story of reverse. Besides innumerable public troubles, he was most unhappy in his family relations. His brother, Maximilian, who became Emperor of Mexico, was shot after a revolution in 1867; his son, the Crown Prince Rudolf, died a mysterious and violent death; and in 1898 his wife, the beautiful Empress Elizabeth, was assassinated by an anarchist. "Then I am spared nothing," Francis Joseph cried in his grief. Fate had still blows to deal him. It was the assassination of his nephew and heir in June 1914 that brought about that trouble with Serbia which developed into the Great War.

Soon after Francis Joseph ascended the throne Hungary rose in revolt. With the aid of Russian troops he subdued the country, and at the same time put down the patriots of Italy. Then he laid a heavy hand upon the Italians, believing, as is the wont of despots, that freedom can be stamped out for ever by force of arms. The Italians rose again; and, as you know, by the close of the year 1860 North and South Italy were free and united. Austria had now lost the bulk of her Italian possessions, and those border districts which she still retained became a bone of contention, which during the Great War brought Italy into the field against her.



FRANCIS JOSEPH, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.
(*Photo by C. Pietzner.*)

In 1866 Austria was soundly beaten by Prussia, and the last shreds of her influence in Germany were lost for ever. In the following year Hungary, by dint of constant agitation, received rights of sovereignty, and Francis Joseph added to his title "Emperor of Austria" that of "King of Hungary."

The most important event in the troubled reign of Francis Joseph was the conclusion of the Triple Alliance, which handed over Austria body and soul to the domination of the German Empire. In the early years of his reign Francis Joseph relied upon Russia to maintain himself against his foes in Hungary and Italy. Prussia was then his great rival; but after the establishment of the German Empire the three emperors of Germany, Austria, and Russia combined in the *Dreikaiser Bund*, or Three Emperors' League, which was very similar in character to the so-called Holy Alliance formed on the downfall of Napoleon. Its object was to prevent any alteration in the map of Europe, and to put down all revolutionary movements.

When France began to recover from her wounds after the war of 1870–1871, and set about the task of strengthening her army, there was great alarm in Germany, and preparations were made to give her a knock-out blow. The Tsar of Russia, learning that an unprovoked attack was about to be made, strongly protested, and he was joined by other sovereigns. The result was that the project was abandoned. This action on the part of the Tsar was the beginning of that good understanding with France which afterwards developed into the Dual Alliance. The Three Emperors' League did not long survive the Berlin Congress, during which Germany combined with Austria to prevent Russia from making herself master of the Balkans.

The two Central Powers now drew closer together, and in 1879 Bismarck brought about that close defensive alliance with Austria which, afterwards joined by Italy, became the Triple Alliance. You will remember that the Treaty of Berlin in 1878 gave Austria a protectorate over Bosnia and Herzegovina. Russia had promised Austria these provinces if she would undertake not to interfere during the Russo-Turkish War. In 1908, while Russia was exhausted after her disastrous war with Japan, while Serbia and Bulgaria were at variance and Turkey was in revolution, Austria annexed the provinces, and thus brought upon herself the bitter enmity of Russia and Serbia. Germany was, of course, behind Austria, and the two Powers worked together for the mastery of the Balkans.

The heir to the throne in June 1914 was the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the emperor's nephew. He was a man of strong will, and his Balkan policy was to extend Austrian power southward to the Mediterranean Sea. Austria has but a poor sea-coast fronting the Mediterranean. On the Adriatic Sea she has a thousand miles of seaboard, with many excellent harbours and deep, sheltered bays; but, unfortunately, a long range of steep limestone mountains cuts off the coast from the interior, and makes communication very difficult. Austria has always longed for better access to the ocean, and has cast covetous eyes on Salonika, which stands on the Ægean Sea.

I have already told you that the Slavs of Bosnia and Herzegovina are very hostile to the Austrians, because they ardently desire to join their fellow-Slavs of Serbia in forming one powerful Slav state. Austria, therefore, dared not begin to carve out a way to Salonika until she was sure that Bosnia and Herzegovina would not rise in revolt and cut her off from her bases. So, on June 23, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, a lady who had Slav blood in her veins, left the Austrian capital to pay a state visit to Bosnia for the purpose of reviewing the troops in that province, and trying to secure the favour of the Bosnian people.

On the morning of 28th June Sarajevo, the Bosnian capital, was in festive array. The yellow Austrian flag, with its black, double-headed eagle, flew above all the public buildings, and fluttered from the upper windows of the shops along the Franz Josef Strasse; soldiers were marching through the streets; bugles were blowing and bands playing. On the pavements stood the townsfolk, most of them sullen and silent. They were waiting for the coming of their future king, but there were no signs of loyalty. The guns roared out from the citadel to announce the arrival of the royal train. The archduke inspected the troops at the station, and he and his wife entered a motor car and drove towards the town hall, where the mayor was waiting to receive them. Suddenly, as they passed along one of the streets, a young printer, twenty years of age, hurled a bomb at the archduke. He warded it off with his arm, but it wounded an officer in the following car and injured several bystanders.

When the motor reached the town hall, the mayor, who knew nothing of what had happened, stepped forward and began to read an address of welcome. The archduke cut him short with the remark, "What is the good of your speeches? I come to Sarajevo on a visit, and I get bombs thrown at me. It is outrageous!" After a short stay at the town hall the archduke and his wife re-entered their motor to return to the station. They had not gone far before a high school student hurled another bomb at them. It failed to explode, and then the lad fired three shots from a pistol. The first bullet struck the archduke in the throat. His wife threw herself in front of him to shield him from further attack, and the second bullet entered her body. The third bullet completed the deadly work, and the dying pair were rapidly conveyed to the palace.

VIEW IN THE OLD PART OF SARAJEVO, THE CAPITAL OF BOSNIA.

Amidst the Alps the crack of a whip may start an avalanche high on the snowy mountains. Slowly it moves at first; soon it gathers speed, and at last comes crashing down with terrible force on the quiet homesteads in the valley. So did the pistol shot of a schoolboy in far-off Bosnia start an avalanche which swept down upon Europe, leaving death and destruction and untold misery in its train.

*Read:* Mr. Lloyd George's speech on the "Ramshackle Empire," *Times*, September 21, 1914.

## 48. FRANCE SINCE 1870.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: Victoria** (1837); **Edward VII.** (1901); **George V.** (1910).]

On May 10, 1871, a treaty of peace was signed at Frankfort between the victorious Germans and the defeated French. By this treaty France surrendered all Alsace, except the fortress of Belfort and its environs, and one-fifth of Lorraine. She also agreed to pay an indemnity of £200,000,000 sterling, and to permit a German army to remain in occupation until the sum was paid off. In 1871, when the first portion of the indemnity was discharged, the Germans evacuated the outer forts of Paris, and removed themselves to the eastern departments, where they remained until 1873, when the last payments were made.

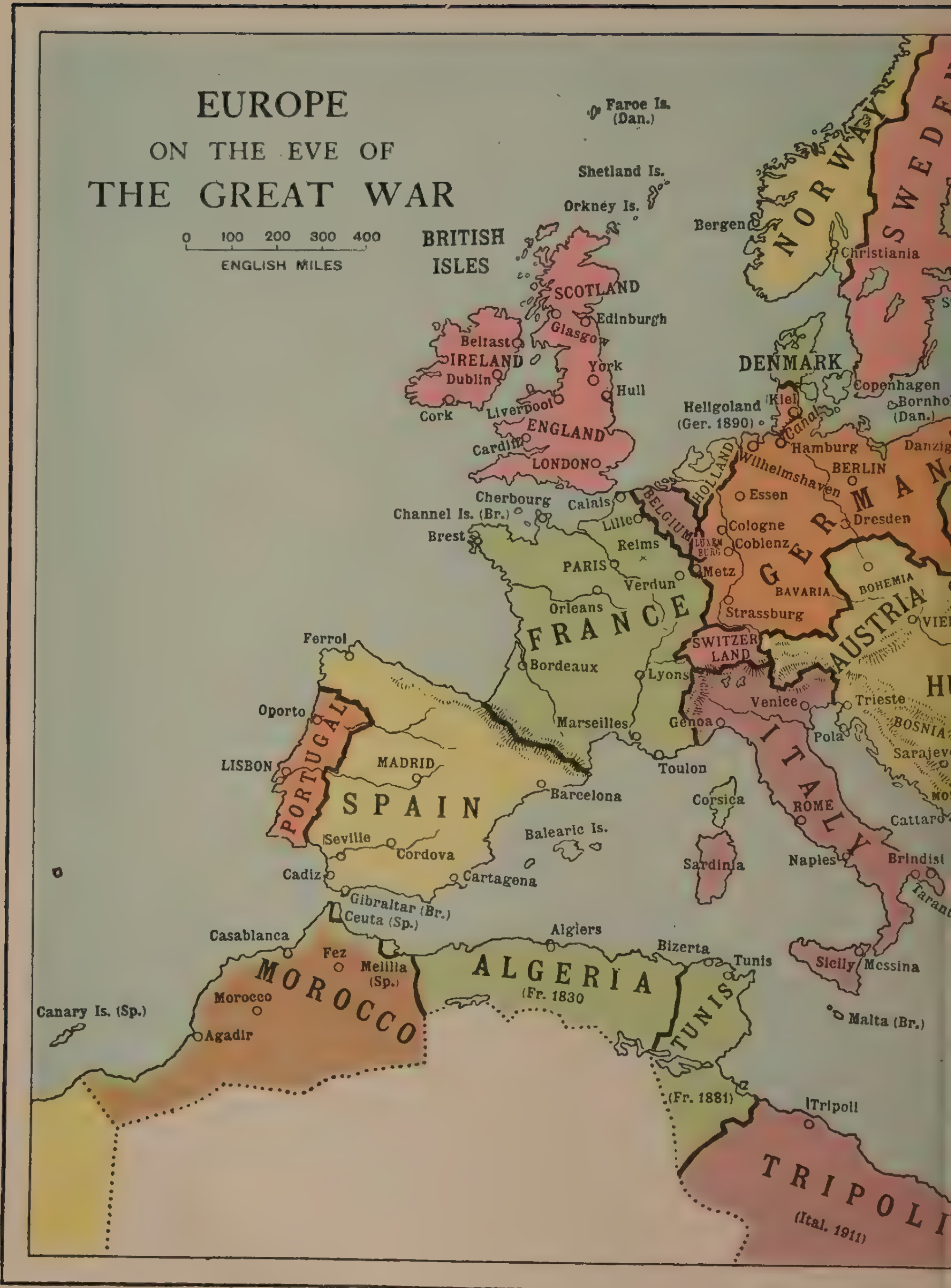
Nothing could exceed the misery of France in the latter half of the year 1871. The country was devastated by war, and torn by internal quarrels. The National Assembly met in February, and took over the reins of government. M. Thiers became president. He was the only man who could hold the Assembly together and restore new life to exhausted France. His great work was to pay off the indemnity and to build up an army. He made a law that every Frenchman must serve five years with the colours and fifteen years with the reserve. It was this law which alarmed Bismarck, and set him preparing for another French campaign. I have already told you how he was foiled.

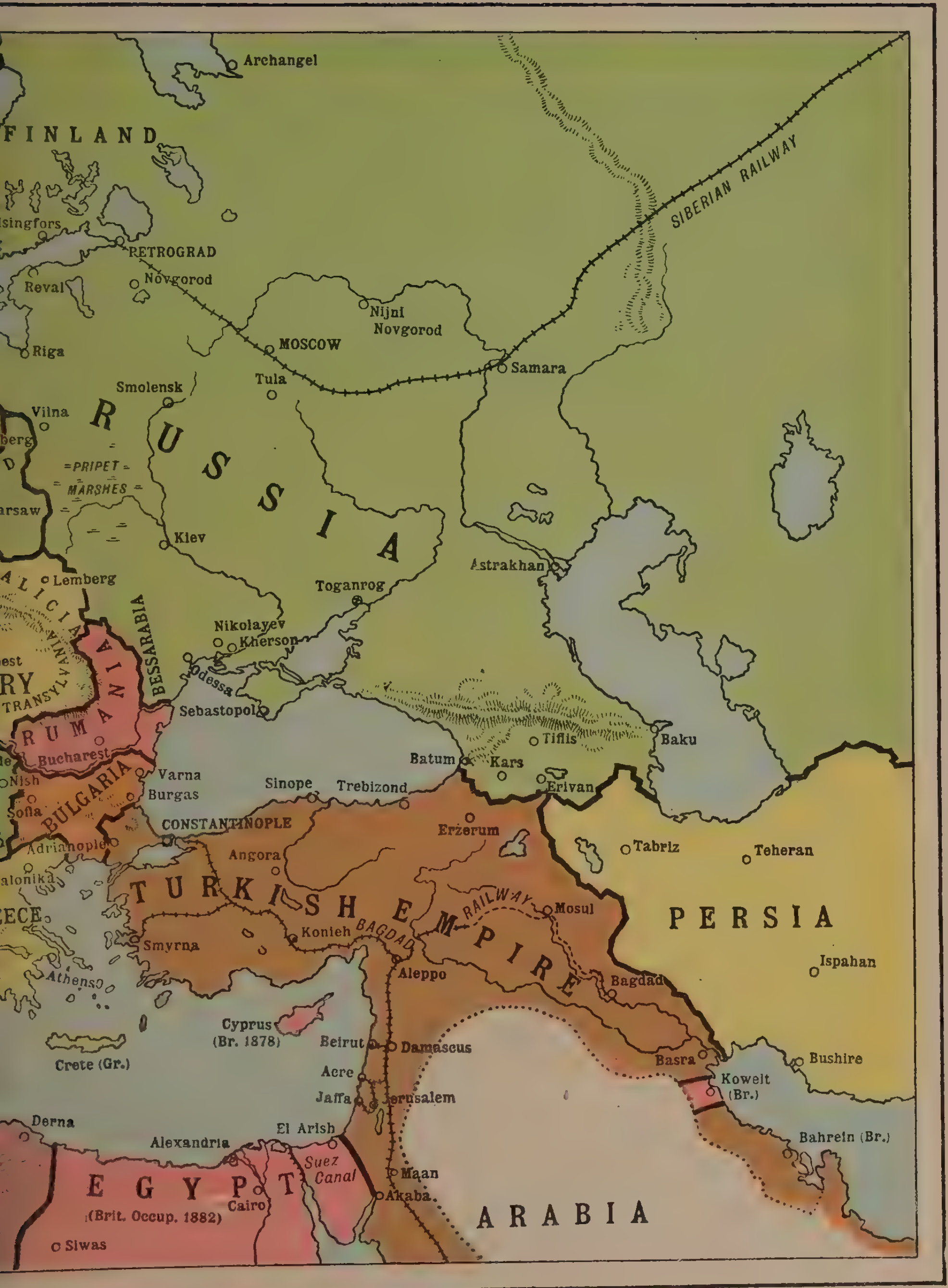
The republic was by no means firmly founded. Many persons in England believed that Thiers would suddenly dissolve the Assembly, appeal to the people, and set up the empire once more. The death of the ex-emperor at Chislehurst, near London, at the beginning of 1873 raised the hopes of the Orleanists; but the various factions of the Royalist party could never agree. When Thiers was driven from office in 1873, the Royalist Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, who had been wounded at Sedan, was elected president. He formed a cabinet composed of the three factions which desired a monarchy in France, and for eighteen months strove to prevent the country from making the republic secure. In 1875, however, chiefly through the efforts of Gambetta, public opinion turned in favour of the republic, which was established by one vote. MacMahon resigned in 1879, and under M. Jules Grévy the republic grew in strength.

During the first year of Grévy's presidentship several important events took place. The Prince Imperial, heir of the ex-Emperor Napoleon, was killed in Zululand, and with his death passed away the greatest menace to the republic. Abroad, questions connected with Egypt and Tunis began to give trouble. The Suez Canal, which was opened in 1869, had been constructed by a French company, and by a French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps; and France had thus acquired a strong interest in Egypt. The ruler of Egypt at this time was Ismail Pasha, a very ambitious man, with large ideas. He set about reforming the administration of his country and extending its boundaries southward to the Sudan. He also built railways, improved the irrigation, and founded schools and industries. All this, however, he did at a ruinous cost, which brought Egypt to the verge of bankruptcy. He raised loans from foreign nations, especially from Britain and France, and sold his share of the Suez Canal to Britain.

Up to the end of 1875 the interest on the public debt was punctually paid. Then, however, the Khedive found that he

# EUROPE ON THE EVE OF THE GREAT WAR

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Baku
Erivan
CONSTANTINOPLE
Adrianople
Erzerum
Tabriz
Teheran
Angora
alonika
TURKISH EMPIRE
BAGDAD RAILWAY
Mosul
PERSIA
ECE
Smyrna
Konieh
Aleppo
Ispahan
Athens
Bagdad
Cyprus (Br. 1878)
Beirut
Damascus
Crete (Gr.)
Basra
Bushire
Acre
Koweit (Br.)
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Derna
El Arish
Bahrein (Br.)
Alexandria
Suez Canal
Maan
EGYPT (Brit. Occup. 1882)
Cairo
Akaba
ARABIA
Siwas

could no longer pay his way. The British Government sent an official to report on the financial position of the country; and the upshot was that France and Britain, in the interests of the bondholders, took over the management of the debt. In this way Britain and France became associated in the affairs of Egypt. Ismail soon found that he was no longer master in his own house; and in 1879, during a national revolt, he dismissed his British and French advisers.

This led to the deposition of Ismail, who was succeeded by his son, Mohammed Tewfik. The new Khedive was entirely in the hands of his foreign advisers, and there was great dissatisfaction amongst the people. In 1882 an Egyptian officer named Arabi Pasha led a national movement against the control of aliens. He strengthened the fortifications of Alexandria, and a rabble slew many foreign residents in the city. A British fleet thereupon bombarded the forts, and the city surrendered. Internal order had still to be restored, and in this work the French refused to take part. A British army was landed, and on September 13 Arabi's power was completely broken at the battle of Tell-el-Kebir. Victory had been won without the assistance of either France or Turkey. The former Power, however, wished to resume what was called the "Dual Control;" but Britain refused, and thus became the real ruler of the country. From that moment French interference in Egypt was at an end. In 1904 the French Government formally recognized Britain's over-lordship of Egypt.

In 1880 Jules Ferry became President of the Republic, and set himself the task of establishing a vast colonial empire. His first venture was in Tunis, upon which the Italians, you will remember, had designs. A French force was landed in May 1881, and Tunis became a French possession. It was the action of France, backed by Germany and, as it was supposed, by Great Britain as well, which threw Italy into the arms of the Central Powers, and made her a partner in the Triple Alliance. France was already a North African power. As far back as 1830 she had begun the conquest of Algeria, which occupied her seventeen years. By 1847 she had firmly established herself in the colony, and subsequent risings had done nothing to

THE BATTLE OF TELL-EL-KEBIR.

*(From the picture by A. De Neuville. By permission of the Fine Art Society, owners of the copyright.)*

shake her hold. I cannot here give you an account of the rise of the French colonial empire; I have only mentioned these North African ventures because they afterwards led to strained relations with Germany.

In the year 1888, when Carnot became president, the most determined attempt was made to overthrow the republic. The Government was in great disfavour at the time, and the discontented elements in the country found a leader in General Boulanger, whose attacks upon the Government made him extremely popular. The monarchical party strongly supported him, and early in 1889 he might easily have made himself head of the State. He was, however, a man of no decision of character, and he frittered away his opportunity. His popularity began to decline, and when he was threatened with a charge of high treason he fled to Brussels. In a letter to the Government he said that he was willing to be tried by a jury of his fellow-countrymen, but not by his political enemies. His cowardly flight was the end of his career. Frenchmen saw that they had been fooled by a handsome adventurer, and they were no longer interested in him. Had he possessed a tithe of the genius of Louis Napoleon, the Third Republic might have been overthrown as easily as the Second. As it was, the republic was saved.

In 1894 President Carnot was assassinated by an Italian anarchist at Lyons, and M. Casimir-Perier succeeded him. During his period of office what is known as the Dreyfus affair began to divide France into two camps. Captain Dreyfus was accused of betraying military secrets. The significance of the affair was that it showed the army to be largely in the hands of Royalists, who stuck at nothing to remove officers who were not favourable to their cause. The affair dragged on until 1906, when the unhappy victim of the conspiracy was declared entirely innocent of all the charges brought against him. He was reinstated in the army and decorated with the Legion of Honour.

During the administration of M. Felix Faure, who became president in January 1895, France and Russia formed the Dual Alliance, which was to have such fateful consequences.

Nicholas II. visited Paris in the following year, and was enthusiastically received. President Faure's return visit to St. Petersburg in 1897 cemented the alliance. While, however, France and Russia were growing in the bond of friendship, an incident took place which for a time brought about strained relations between France and Great Britain. The French had long disputed the British claim to the entire Nile Valley, and in June 1896 they sent Major Marchand on an exploring journey from French territory to the Upper Nile. Britain was at that time reconquering the Sudan step by step from the followers of the Mahdi, and a race for the Upper Nile began between General, afterwards Lord, Kitchener and M. Marchand. Five days after the battle of Omdurman (September 2, 1898) Marchand's small French expedition was discovered at Fashoda, on the White Nile, about four hundred and sixty miles south of Khartum.

Kitchener at once proceeded to Fashoda, where he found that Marchand had hoisted the French flag, and had thus claimed the territory. The French officer refused either to withdraw his troops or to haul down his flag; whereupon Kitchener surrounded his forces, though he tactfully prevented a collision. For a month the matter was hotly disputed in both Britain and France, but on 5th November the French Government announced that Marchand would withdraw from Fashoda. The incident closed in March 1899, when France gave up her claim, and a new boundary was decided upon between the British and French spheres of influence.

The discussion of the whole affair, which might easily have led to war, was marked by an excellent spirit of restraint on both sides, and it was followed in 1904 by the settlement of outstanding differences with regard to Newfoundland, Egypt, Morocco, and other colonies. To King Edward VII. must be ascribed much of the good will which had made these arrangements possible. He was very fond of France, and the French liked and respected him. His frequent visits to Paris, and his friendly conversations with French statesmen, drew the two nations together, and laid the foundations of the *entente* which was firmly established by the year 1906.

We shall now see how France and Germany became involved in a serious dispute which embittered both countries. Germany, as you will learn in a later lesson, had begun to establish herself as a sea Power, and to build up a colonial empire. In 1904, when Britain had agreed that France should make herself the chief Power in Morocco, Germany had offered no objection. In the spring of 1905, when Russia was engaged in the Manchurian war, and therefore was unable to assist her ally France, the Kaiser thought the time had come for him to spring into the arena and assert himself in North Africa. He visited the Mediterranean, and made a speech at Tangier in which he stated that he "would never allow any other Power to step between him and the free sovereign of a free country." By the free sovereign he meant the Emperor of Morocco.

This was a direct challenge not only to France but to Great Britain and to Spain, both of which countries had made agreements with France as to Morocco. Before long the Kaiser demanded a conference of the Powers to settle the Morocco question, and followed it up by a threat of war. The French Foreign Secretary, M. Delcassé, stood firm; but the Premier, knowing that France could hope for no assistance from Russia, gave way. Delegates from all the Powers assembled at Algeciras in January 1906, and the result was that Morocco was practically neutralized. Germany had won a victory, and had humbled France.

Not until July 1911 did Morocco again become a source of trouble. In the previous April the French Government had been obliged to send a small army to the capital of Morocco, in order to release the sultan and certain Europeans who were besieged by rebellious tribesmen. On 2nd July the French Government was informed that Germany had sent a gunboat to Agadir, a port of Morocco, in order to protect the lives and liberties of German subjects in that country. The real object of this move was to prevent France from establishing her power in Morocco.

The British Government now stepped in, and a long discussion began. It was hard to understand Germany's position. In 1909 she had declared that she only stood out for trading rights, and that she recognized that France was bound to keep order in the disturbed country on her Algerian border. The fact was that the Kaiser was stirring up trouble for the purpose of being bought off with colonial territory elsewhere. Later in the year an arrangement was made by which France was permitted to occupy Morocco in order to keep the peace, on condition that she allowed the traders of all nations, equal rights, handed over to Germany about 172,000 square miles of territory bordering on Kamerun, and gave her access to the Congo. France was beaten again; she only maintained her hold on Morocco at a price.

During this dispute war nearly broke out. The German army and navy were quite ready, and the moment was favourable. The French knew that they would have the support of the British, and they believed that they were, with British assistance, a match for the enemy. Knowing that he would have the British navy against him, the Kaiser drew back at the eleventh hour, and waited for a more favourable opportunity. France was now convinced that before long she would have to face war with Germany.

## 49. THE KAISER WILLIAM II.

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: Victoria** (1837); **Edward VII.** (1901); **George V.** (1910).]

The Kaiser William II., the masterful, ambitious man who plunged the world into the most awful strife known to history, was born on January 27, 1859. He was the son of Frederick, then Crown Prince of Prussia, and of the English Princess Victoria. The boy was reared amidst wars and rumours of wars. He was only a few months old when King William, his grandfather, and Bismarck, the great Chancellor, were struggling with the Parliament over the army law. He was only five years of age when war was made on Denmark, and only two years older when the Austrian War began. In his tenth year, according to the custom of his house, he was made a second-lieutenant of the 1st Foot Guards. A year later his regiment marched away to fight against France.

His youth was nourished on stories of victory, and from the first his mind was filled with visions of military glory. He was a clever and diligent boy, and when he left the German public school at which he received his earlier education he passed out tenth in a list of seventeen, with a certificate marked "satisfactory." Shortly afterwards he was sent to the university of Bonn. He also received instruction from the three men who, more than any others, had made German history—the Emperor William, Bismarck, and Moltke. The emperor taught him to reverence the name and fame of the Hohenzollerns; to believe himself specially chosen by God for his high office; to do his duty without fear or favour, and not to heed the wishes of his people if they conflicted with his own. Bismarck deeply impressed upon him the policy of "blood and iron;" taught him how to manage Parliament, the German people, and foreign governments so that the Fatherland might become all-powerful. Moltke instructed him in the art of war.

His father, the Crown Prince, had none of the high and mighty notions of Bismarck. He had no desire to prevent his people from obtaining rights of self-government, and many Germans believed that he had imbibed these notions from his English wife. The *Junkers*, the Prussian landed nobility, hated all ideas of liberty for the people. They believed that the whole duty of the middle and working classes was to pay and obey, and they grew more and more angry with the princess who was supposed to be leading the Crown Prince astray. Meanwhile Bismarck was doing his best to teach Prince William that he must be a man of blood and iron. How completely the young man learnt the lesson we now know only too well.

In February 1881 he married Princess Victoria of Schleswig-Holstein, and thus put an end to the complaints of the bride's father, who had all along protested against Prussia's action in seizing these provinces. Their first son, the present Crown Prince, was born in May 1882. When old King William heard the news he cried, "God be praised and thanked! Four generations of kings!

Prince William now threw himself with energy into his military duties, and began to study the machinery of government in his future kingdom, and to make himself acquainted at first hand with the work of the Foreign Office. Bismarck watched his progress with great satisfaction. He believed that the young prince would prove an emperor after his own heart; that he would care nothing for parliaments, and would stand up for his imperial rights like a "rock of bronze." So popular did the young prince become, and so greatly was he admired, that the people began to overlook his father, the Crown Prince, altogether. The *Junkers* had never regarded the Crown Prince with favour, and he was now almost eclipsed by his strong-willed, eager, clever son. The officers of the army saw in him the man who would surely lead them to military glory.

In the spring of 1887 a growth appeared in the Crown Prince's throat. It increased very rapidly, and before long it was clear that he would not live long. At the first sign of his serious illness all eyes were turned to Prince William, who began to appear on all sorts of public occasions and make speeches about the military glory of his house and its bulwark the army. At this time there was some trouble with France and Russia, and the German army was increased by half a million men. Bismarck explained the situation in what is thought to be his greatest speech. He thus concluded: "We Germans fear God, and nothing else in the world." There was no more delighted listener in the assembly than Prince William. He was all for military glory.

The sands of the old emperor's life were now fast running out. He was ninety-one years of age, and he felt his son's affliction keenly. It was Prince William who watched over the last few years of the old Kaiser's life. It was to him that the aged monarch gave warning and counsel for the future. He advised his grandson to be patient and dutiful during his father's reign, which could not last long; and begged him to be "considerate" to Russia, for he had always feared to make an enemy of that great Power. He knew full well that if Germany should come to blows with Russia, France would attack her, and thus she would have to fight on two fronts at the same time. Then the old man begged Bismarck to remain in office, no matter what should befall; and a few days later he died, full of years and honour, leaving the imperial crown to Frederick, his poor, afflicted son.

William was now Crown Prince, and he knew that he would soon be emperor. His father died on June 15, 1888, and he ascended the throne in his twenty-ninth year. The late emperor had issued his first proclamation to his people, and his second to his army; but the new emperor reversed the order. On the day of his father's death he sent messages to the army and to the navy, and kept his people waiting three days before they received their proclamation. To the army he wrote as follows:—

"I and the army belong to one another; we are born for one another, and we will stand together in an indissoluble bond in peace or storm, as God may will. I swear always to remember that the eyes of my ancestors look down upon me from the other world, and that one day I shall have to give an account to them of the honour and glory of the army."

Then he proceeded to bury his father, but with none of the military pomp which had been seen at the Emperor William's funeral.

There is no need to tell you the story of William's reign in detail. The chief features, in so far as they refer to the relation of Germany with the other European states, have already been dealt with. When he first opened the Prussian Parliament he declared, amidst a perfect storm of applause, that he would act upon Frederick the Great's maxim, and be the first servant of the State. To do him justice, he thereafter devoted himself unsparingly to the duties of his high office, and laboured unceasingly to make Germany overwhelmingly strong in war and prosperous in peace. But from the first he meant to do this in his own way. He told the Prussian Parliament that while he had no desire to take away such liberties as the people possessed, he would never yield one jot or tittle of his rights as king.

British sovereigns know that they derive all their power from their people, but William declared over and over again that he held his throne directly from God. He frequently made such impious statements as the following :—

" The German people are the chosen of God. On me, on me as German Emperor, the Spirit of God has descended. I am His weapon, His sword, and His vicegerent. Woe to cowards and unbelievers !

" There is only one master in this country. I am he, and I shall suffer no other beside me.

" There is only one law—my law, the law which I myself lay down."

Probably you wonder why the Prussians permitted one man to lord it over them in this fashion. The explanation is that the Prussians have never known any other condition of things ; that the voting system puts all the power into the hands of the rich ; and that, as every Prussian must be a soldier for a certain period, the nation has been well drilled into submission. All Prussians know that the empire was founded by the sword, and they believe that it can only be maintained by the sword. The majority of them regard their king as their commanding officer, and are therefore prepared to obey him with unquestioning obedience.

William had not been long on the throne before he dismissed the wily old Chancellor who had served his grandfather so long and so faithfully, and had taught the young emperor all the tricks of absolute government. The fact was, that while Bismarck remained Chancellor, William could not say truthfully, " There is only one master in this country. I am he." The old statesman was very strong and self-willed ; so, too, was the young monarch, who was extremely vain as well, and quite confident that he could do everything he turned his hand to better than anybody else. He therefore treated Bismarck in such a manner that he resigned office. The aged Moltke had already retired.

Early in the year 1895 the Kaiser began to turn his thoughts to the navy. He was master of the finest and best-organized army in the world ; now he desired to win the sovereignty of the seas as well. " Germany's future," he said, " is upon the waters." The navy which he proposed to build was out of all proportion to the number of merchant ships which Germany possessed, and from the first many Britons were convinced that it was meant to be the means of overcoming their country and empire. He also constructed a canal through Schleswig-Holstein, and united the Baltic Sea with the North Sea, so that his warships could rapidly and safely pass from one to the other. The work of enlarging and deepening this canal was only finished in June 1914, within six weeks of the outbreak of the Great War.

## 50. THE DAWN OF "THE DAY."

[**Contemporary British Sovereigns: Victoria** (1837); **Edward VII.** (1901); **George V.** (1910).]

During the reign of the Kaiser William envy and hatred of Great Britain grew apace in Germany. Thanks to hard work, great perseverance, and much thought, Germany had become a great manufacturing country—the rival of Great Britain. She felt that she was marked out to be the head of a world empire; yet there were many obstacles in her way. She has a poor sea-coast and but few harbours. Most of the Baltic Sea, which fronts the greater part of her shores, is frozen for months every year. Every day she felt more and more the need of outlets to the open ocean, yet she could only secure them by conquest. She is surrounded by old-established nations—by France on the west, Russia on the east, Austria-Hungary on the south. Between her and the North Sea lie Holland and Belgium, two small countries, the soil of which is composed of the silt brought down by the Rhine. Belgium was forbidden to her by a treaty to which she herself was a party; Holland she dared not attack without bringing France, Russia, and Britain into armed conflict with her. Germany, therefore, could not expand in Europe without conquest.

Nor was her extension easy overseas. When she was ready to make herself a world Power all the best parts of the earth had already been taken up by other nations. She found that, as an empire, she had been born too late. She managed to found a few colonies in Africa; but with the exception of Togoland and the Kamerun, they were unfruitful and thankless regions of sand and stones. In Asia she bullied China into yielding her the territory on which she set up her colony of Kiao-Chou, and thereby aroused the hostility of the Japanese. When she tried to get territory elsewhere, she found herself in conflict with one or other of the Great Powers. Then, too, she had the mortification of seeing hundreds of thousands of her people settle down in the colonies of other nations, and become lost to her. All this was very galling, and the Prussian military class never neglected an opportunity of pointing out that Germany could only expand by means of warfare.

Though the Kaiser frequently declared himself the friend of peace, and did indeed keep the peace for twenty-six years, he was a constant source of disquiet and irritation to other nations. He was accustomed to address his army and navy in a defiant and boastful manner, and he coined such phrases as the "mailed fist" and "shining armour" of Germany. You already know how he intervened in Morocco, and by threats induced France to yield him colonial territory. During the troubles in South Africa before the Boer War he sent to the President of the South African Republic a telegram which plainly showed that he was a false friend to Great Britain. When the war was in its doubtful early stages he and his advisers believed that the British would be beaten, and that their empire would go to pieces. It was openly said by many Germans that if they had then possessed a powerful navy they would have been able to capture some of our colonies. The Kaiser seized the opportunity to press his Parliament for a large grant to be devoted to the building of a navy so strong that the "next greatest naval Power"—that is, Great Britain—would not be able to attack it without grave risk. The money was granted, and a navy costing more than £300,000,000 was built.

Envy and hatred of Great Britain were fostered in every possible way. A great German historian had taught his fellow-countrymen that Britain was *the* enemy. She was, he said, a "robber state;" she had become mistress of one-fifth of the whole world by making cats'-paws of other races; and she had no real right to this territory. She could not even rule it properly. If she had ever been strong and warlike, that time had long since gone by. Though she appeared to be powerful, she was in fact very weak, and quite unable to hold her empire against a really strong Power such as Germany. So constantly was this doctrine taught that the Germans came to believe it, and to look forward to "The Day" on which they would challenge the power of Great Britain. They confidently believed that they could defeat her and enter into her heritage. A popular philosophy had taught them that there was nothing wrong in trying to seize the territory of other nations. Might, they believed, was right, and the spoils of the world were to the strongest.

Newspaper writers constantly impressed this teaching upon the people, and several Prussian soldiers wrote books showing how Germany ought to go to work to beat down Great Britain and tear her empire from her. War became the religion of Germany, and she prepared for it with wonderful foresight, skill, and zeal. Her great manufacturing resources, employed in such factories as the Krupp works at Essen, enabled her to supply her armies with unlimited numbers of great guns and an almost endless supply of explosives. She believed, too, that she had, by means of Count Zeppelin's invention, won the mastery of the air.

Germany before the Great War had a population of 65,000,000, and as she was a nation in arms it would be possible for her to array for battle some 9,000,000 men. Russia had a population of 141,000,000 in Europe alone, and it would be possible for her to mass an army of about 15,000,000 men. You thus see that the military Power which seemed to be the greatest obstacle to Germany's overlordship of Europe was Russia, which, as you know, was allied with France. Bismarck knew this well, and he constantly insisted that Germany should always keep on good terms with Russia. When the Kaiser took the helm of state into his own hands, he began to regard the growth of Russia's army with great concern. He saw her badly beaten by the Japanese, but he also saw her recover rapidly and build up her army anew on modern lines. Finally, he came to the conclusion that unless something was done, and done quickly, to check the growing power of Russia, he could never realize his ambitions.

France, too, was waxing in military strength. In 1905 she had altered her army law by reducing service with the colours to two years, and by increasing service in the reserve to eleven years. But even this arrangement did not give her all the soldiers she needed ; so in 1913 she decreed that every Frenchman who was "bon pour le service" must join the colours at the age of twenty, spend three years in the regular army, eleven years in the regular reserve, seven years in the territorial army, and seven in the territorial reserve. Thus every able-bodied Frenchman became liable for military service from his twentieth to his forty-eighth year.

Roughly speaking, this new law enabled France to put into the field, a month or so after the beginning of war, about 4,000,000 trained men. She would then have a first-line army of about 1,500,000 men, a second-line of about 500,000, and a reserve of about 2,000,000. Germany feared that this new law would so strengthen France that she and Russia together would be more than a match for her. It was all-important, then, that war should be declared before the new arrangement could come into full working order.

I need not go into the Balkan question again. The Kaiser and his advisers have always regarded Germany as the heir of Austria. For many years past they had believed that Austria-Hungary would go to pieces on the death of Francis Joseph, and that Austria would then be included in the German Empire. If Austria, therefore, made headway in the Balkans, Germany could look on unmoved, and even encourage her. As you know, the Kaiser, by means of loans and by training the Ottoman army, had made Turkey subservient to him. He had also gained a footing in Asia Minor, where German engineers were busy constructing a great railway to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf. He needed only the possession of Constantinople to be in a position to realize dreams of an Eastern empire greater than that which Alexander knew.

The French ambassador at Berlin, in a Yellow Book which was published in December 1914, set forth very clearly the reasons why Germany wanted war and what preparations she made for it. Even in July 1913, he tells us, most Germans thought that war was "inevitable," for the following reasons. Since the Franco-German War the national pride of the Germans had been fostered to such an extent that they had come to believe themselves the greatest, strongest, and most efficient nation of the world. They believed that they must have colonies in order to provide new markets and new settlements for their surplus population, and they were very sore at the failure of their attempts to win them. They were specially angry with Great Britain and France, because they believed that these countries had foiled them in regard to Morocco. It was humiliating to them to see the nation which they had overcome in 1870 daring to stand in their way.

Further, the great manufacturers of guns and armour plate, and the chief merchants, believed that war would be "good business," and in this belief they were strongly supported by the nobles and the military class. The soldiers were naturally anxious for war, because it meant the exercise of their profession and quick promotion. The *Junkers* feared the growth of Socialism, and believed that they could only preserve their "rights" by means of a war which would turn away the common people's thoughts from plans of reform. The armed peace which Germany had maintained for many years past had been a crushing burden, and it was time that the army and navy began to earn a dividend.

From a secret report to the German Government, which somehow fell into French hands in April 1914, we learn how Germany made plans to bring about this "inevitable" war. Between 1906 and the middle of 1914 she four times increased her army, and in 1913 raised from her people a war levy of £50,000,000. Her object in increasing the army and in raising this money was thus stated in the report—to fortify and extend German power "throughout the whole world." In order to do this, the German people were taught that Germany must begin a war because her foes were threatening her, and that such a war would make their burdens lighter, and give them many years of peace and prosperity.

When the minds of the Germans were thus prepared, discontent was to be stirred up amongst the native peoples in the French and British possessions, as well as in Russia, so that these countries would be full of revolt when war was declared. As for the small states—such as Belgium and Holland—they must be prepared to follow Germany or be conquered. If Belgium should object to the passage of a German army through her territory, she must be invaded in spite of the treaty which guaranteed her neutrality. All this, according to the report, was arranged as far back as May 1913.

After the tragedy at Sarajevo, Germany instructed her ambassadors to find out what the other Powers would be likely to do should Austria and Germany unite in fighting Serbia, which was declared by Austria to be responsible for the murder of the Archduke Ferdinand. German agents at St. Petersburg said that Russia would not stir; there were serious labour troubles in that country, and the Tsar would be afraid to mobilize his troops lest they should join the strikers. From France came the news that the French army was not fit to fight. Thus the Kaiser was led to believe that Russia dared not fight, and that France could not fight, because, as in 1870, she was unprepared.

But what of Britain? The Kaiser had flooded the British Isles with spies, who kept him informed of every movement of our fleet and troops, and gave him full and very inaccurate information about our political affairs. These spies told him that civil war was about to break out in Ireland, and that the Government would have its hands so full at home that it could not possibly spare any part of its small army to fight on the Continent. The German ambassador in London did not believe all this talk about civil war, and he advised his Government not to rely upon it. The German Government, however, would not listen to him. The Kaiser knew better: he believed his spies.

Feeling sure, then, that Russia would not fight, that France could not resist, and that Britain would be unable to interfere, the Kaiser decided that "The Day" so long hoped for and so long prepared for had come. On August 1, 1914, he "let slip the dogs of war," and Armageddon began.

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Thus in a world conflict of unimagined magnitude, terror, and destruction, this brief outline of European history comes to an end. All down the ages you have seen nation flinging itself against nation in deadly strife, and never for long has there been a reign of peace. Yet in every country and in every century men have dreamed of that blessed time when "they shall beat their swords into plowshares, and their spears into pruninghooks;" when they shall "sit every man under his vine and under his fig tree." During the Great War the hideousness and unspeakable madness of aggressive strife bred loathing in the hearts and minds of all men, save those who were frenzied by the lust of dominion. Before the third year of war was out, one of the declared aims of the Western Allies was to eradicate this greatest of all tragedies from the civilized life of mankind by forming a League of Nations to keep the peace of the world. Should the Almighty so will it, the greatest curse of the ages will thus give birth to its greatest blessing. The longest and saddest chapter of human history will close, and the white pages of a new age will be inscribed with those long-delayed and far more glorious victories which peace alone can win.

# LEADING DATES IN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

[Numbers in brackets, thus (**1**), refer to the Lessons in which the matter is dealt with.]

| Year. | Western Nations. | Central Europe and Italy. | Eastern Nations. | Year. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| B.C. | | | | B.C. |
| 753. | | Foundation of Rome (**9**). | | 753. |
| 490. | | | First Persian invasion of Greece. Battle of Marathon (**6**). | 490. |
| 480. | | | Second Persian invasion. Battles of Thermopylæ and Salamis (**6**). | 480. |
| 477. | | | Confederacy of Delos formed. Origin of Athenian Empire (**3**). | 477. |
| 404. | | | Fall of Athens (**7**). | 404. |
| 334–323. | | | Conquests of Alexander the Great (**7**). | 334–323. |
| 216. | | Hannibal defeats Romans at Cannæ (**10**). | | 216. |
| 146. | | Destruction of Carthage by the Romans (**10**). | | 146. |
| 58–52. | Cæsar's wars in Gaul (**11**). | | | 58–52. |
| 44. | | Murder of Cæsar (**12**). | | 44. |
| 27. | | Augustus becomes Emperor of Rome (**13**). | | 27. |
| A.D. | | | | A.D. |
| 330. | | | Constantine makes Constantinople the capital of the Roman Empire; now Christian (**15**). | 330. |
| 410. | | Alaric the Goth sacks Rome (**14**). | | 410. |
| 451. | Attila the Hun defeated by Romans and Goths near Châlons (**14**). | | | 451. |
| 536–555. | | Reconquest of Italy by Belisarius and Narses, generals of Justinian (**15**). | | 536–555. |
| 732. | Charles Martel defeats Saracens at Tours (**16**). | | | 732. |
| 800. | | Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the West. Holy Roman Empire founded (**17**). | | 800. |
| 843. | Treaty of Verdun. Frankish dominions divided in three (**17**). | | | 843. |
| 911. | Rollo (*Rolf the Ganger*) becomes Duke of Normandy (**18**). | | | 911. |
| 1077. | | Emperor Henry IV. submits to the Pope at Canossa (**19**). | | 1077. |
| 1099. | | | Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders (**20**). | 1099. |

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| 1155. | | Barbarossa becomes emperor (**21**). | | 1155. |
| 1203. | | | Constantinople taken by the Crusaders and Venetians; again taken and sacked (1204) (**20**). | 1203. |
| 1273. | | Rudolf of Hapsburg becomes emperor (**21**). | | 1273. |
| 1346. | Battle of Crécy (**22**). | | | 1346. |
| 1356. | | The *Golden Bull* fixes the constitution of the Holy Roman Empire (**21**). | | 1356. |
| 1379–80. | | War of Chiozza. Genoese defeated by the Venetians (**23**). | | 1379–80. |
| 1386. | | Battle of Sempach (**25**). Independence of Switzerland recognized (**25**). | | 1386. |
| 1389. | | | Turks defeat Serbs at Kossovo (**25**). | 1389. |
| 1415. | Battle of Agincourt (**22**). | | | 1415. |
| 1429. | Joan of Arc relieves Orleans. Coronation of Charles VII. at Reims (**22**). | | | 1429. |
| 1453. | | | Constantinople taken by Turks (**25**). | 1453. |
| 1469. | Marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile. Union of Spain (**25**). | | | 1469. |
| 1477. | Netherlands pass to Austria by marriage of Maximilian of Hapsburg to Mary of Burgundy (**28**). | | | 1477. |
| 1492. | Fall of Granada, the last Moorish kingdom in Spain (**25**). | | | 1492. |
| 1517. | | Luther nails his ninety-five Theses to the church door at Wittenberg. Beginning of the Reformation (**27**). | | 1517. |
| 1525. | Francis I. of France defeated at Pavia (**27**). | | | 1525. |
| 1526. | | | Battle of Mohacs. Turks masters of Hungary (**25**). | 1526. |
| 1533. | | | Ivan the Terrible becomes Tsar (**33**). | 1533. |
| 1552. | France acquires Metz, Toul, and Verdun (**29**). | | | 1552. |
| 1555. | | Peace of Augsburg. German States to fix their own religion (**27**). | | 1555. |
| 1556. | | Emperor Charles V. abdicates. Philip II. becomes King of Spain (**28**). | | 1556. |
| 1566. | Revolt of the Netherlands against Spain (**28**). | | | 1566. |
| 1571. | | | Turkish fleet defeated at Lepanto by Spaniards and Venetians (**28**). | 1571. |

# LEADING DATES IN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

[Numbers in brackets, thus (**1**), refer to the Lessons in which the matter is dealt with.]

| Year. | Western Nations. | Central Europe and Italy. | Eastern Nations. | Year. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1588. | Defeat of the Spanish Armada (**28**). | | | 1588. |
| 1598. | Henry IV. of France issues the Edict of Nantes (**29**). | | | 1598. |
| 1618. | | Thirty Years' War begins. Frederick, Elector Palatine, King of Bohemia (1619) (**30**). | | 1618. |
| 1624–42. | Cardinal Richelieu in power in France (**29, 30**). | | | 1624–42. |
| 1632. | | Battle of Lützen. Gustavus Adolphus killed (**30**). | | 1632. |
| 1648. | | Treaty of Westphalia. End of the Thirty Years' War. Swedish power at its maximum (**30**). | | 1648. |
| 1661. | Louis XIV., the *Grand Monarch*, absolute ruler (**31**). | | | 1661. |
| 1667. | Dutch raid on the Thames (**31**). | | | 1667. |
| 1672. | Holland invaded by Louis XIV. William of Orange Stadtholder (**31**). | | | 1672. |
| 1683. | | | John Sobieski of Poland routs the Turks at Vienna (**34**). | 1683. |
| 1685. | Louis XIV. revokes the Edict of Nantes (**31**). | | | 1685. |
| 1689. | | | Peter the Great sole ruler of Russia (**33**). | 1689. |
| 1692. | Battle of Cape La Hogue (**32**). | | | 1692. |
| 1698. | | | Treaty of Carlovitz. Turkey gives up Hungary to Austria (**34**). | 1698. |
| 1700. | | | Charles XII. of Sweden defeats the Russians at Narva (**33**). | 1700. |
| ,, | Philip of Anjou becomes King of Spain. War of the Spanish Succession begins (1701) (**32**). | | | ,, |
| 1704. | | Marlborough and Eugene defeat the French at Blenheim (**32**). | | 1704. |
| 1709. | Marlborough and Eugene defeat the French at Malplaquet (**32**). | | | 1709. |
| ,, | | | Charles XII. defeated by Peter the Great at Poltava (**34**). | ,, |
| 1713. | Treaty of Utrecht. Britain's oversea empire founded (**32**). | | | 1713. |

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|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1740. | | Frederick II. (the Great) becomes King of Prussia. Austrian Succession War (**35**). | | 1740. |
| 1756. | Seven Years' War begins. Byng's failure at Minorca (**36**). | | | 1756. |
| 1757. | | Frederick defeats the French at Rossbach (**35**). | | 1757. |
| 1759. | The "Wonderful Year." British defeat the French at Minden. Hawke destroys French fleet in Quiberon Bay. Wolfe takes Quebec (**35**). | | | 1759. |
| 1772. | | | First Partition of Poland, by Russia, Prussia, and Austria (**35**). | 1772. |
| 1789. | French Revolution begins. Meeting of the States-General (May 5). Taking of the Bastille (July 14) (**36**). | | | 1789. |
| 1792. | France attacked by Austria and Prussia (**36**). | | | 1792. |
| 1793. | Execution of Louis XVI. Reign of Terror in France (**36**). | | | 1793. |
| ,, | | | Second Partition of Poland (**35**). | ,, |
| 1795. | The Directory in France (**36**). | | | 1795. |
| ,, | | | Third Partition of Poland (**35**). | ,, |
| 1797. | | Treaty of Campo Formio. Napoleon cedes Venice to Austria (**36**). | | 1797. |
| 1798. | | | Napoleon in Egypt. Nelson destroys French fleet at Nile (**36**). | 1798. |
| 1799. | Napoleon returns to France. He becomes First Consul (**36**). | | | 1799. |
| 1804. | Napoleon Emperor of the French (**37**). | | | 1804. |
| 1805. | Battle of Trafalgar (Oct. 21). Napoleon's sea-power destroyed (**37**). | | | 1805. |
| ,, | | Napoleon's victory at Austerlitz (*Battle of the Emperors*) (**37**). | | ,, |
| 1806. | | Napoleon forms the Confederation of the Rhine. End of the Holy Roman Empire (**37**). | | 1806. |
| ,, | | Napoleon routs the Prussians at Jena. He issues the Berlin Decrees (**37**). | | ,, |
| 1807. | | The *Emancipating Edict* of Stein in Prussia (**38**). | | 1807. |

# LEADING DATES IN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

[Numbers in brackets, thus (**1**), refer to the Lessons in which the matter is dealt with.]

| Year. | Western Nations. | Central Europe and Italy. | Eastern Nations. | Year. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1808. | French invasion of Spain. Peninsular War begins (**37**). | | | 1808. |
| 1812. | | | Napoleon invades Russia. The Retreat from Moscow (**37**). | 1812. |
| 1813. | | The *War of Liberation* in Germany. French defeated at Leipzig (*Battle of the Nations*) (**38**). | | 1813. |
| 1814. | The Allies enter France. Abdication of Napoleon. Congress of Vienna meets (**38**). | | | 1814. |
| 1815. | Napoleon escapes from Elba (March). The *Hundred Days.* Battle of Waterloo (June 18) (**38**). | | | 1815. |
| ,, | | The *Holy Alliance* formed (**39**). | | ,, |
| 1827. | | | Battle of Navarino. Emancipation of Greece (**39**). | 1827. |
| 1830. | Second Revolution in France. Louis Philippe becomes king (**39**). | | | 1830. |
| ,, | Belgium separates from Holland and becomes independent (**39**). | | | ,, |
| 1830–47. | Conquest of Algeria by the French (**48**). | | | 1830–47. |
| 1835. | | German Zollverein established (**42**). | | 1835. |
| 1839. | Neutrality of Belgium guaranteed by the Great Powers (**39**). | | | 1839. |
| 1848. | The "*Year of Revolutions.*" Third Revolution in France. Louis Napoleon becomes President of the Republic (**40**). | | | 1848. |
| 1849. | | Roman Republic, set up by Garibaldi, overthrown by French (**40**). | | 1849. |
| 1851. | *Coup d'état* by Louis Napoleon, who becomes (1852) Emperor of the French (**40**). | | | 1851. |
| 1853–55. | | | War between Russia and Turkey. Britain and France support Turkey. Expedition to the Crimea (1854). Fall of Sebastopol (Sept. 10, 1855) (**41**). | 1853–55. |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1858–61. | | | **Tsar Alexander II.** emancipates the Russian serfs (**44**). | 1858–61. |
| 1859. | **Napoleon III.** aids Sardinia against Austria. Battles of Magenta and Solferino. Austria gives up Lombardy (**40**). | | | 1859. |
| 1860. | | **Garibaldi's** *Thousand* frees Sicily and Naples. Victor Emmanuel King of Italy (1861) (**40**). | | 1860. |
| 1864. | | Prussia and Austria take Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark (**42**). | | 1864. |
| 1866. | | War between Prussia and Austria. Battle of Sadowa. Prussia annexes Hanover and Hesse (**42**). | | 1866. |
| ,, | | Italy acquires Venice (**40**). | | ,, |
| 1870. | Franco-German War. Battle of Sedan (Sept. 1). Third Republic established in France. Surrender of Metz (Oct. 27) (**43**). | | | 1870. |
| ,, | | Italian troops enter Rome (Sept. 20) (**40**). | | ,, |
| 1871. | | **William I.** proclaimed German Emperor at Versailles (Jan. 18) (**43**). | | 1871. |
| ,, | Fall of Paris (Jan. 30) (**43**). | | | ,, |
| ,, | Treaty of Frankfort (May 10). France gives up Alsace and Lorraine (**43** & **48**). | | | ,, |
| 1877–78. | | | Russo-Turkish War, following upon *Bulgarian Atrocities*. Turkish defence of Plevna (July–Nov. 1877). Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878). Berlin Congress and Treaty (July 13, 1878) (**41**). | 1877–78. |
| 1881. | French occupy Tunis (**46** & **48**). | | | 1881. |
| 1882. | Britain occupies Egypt (**48**). | | | 1882. |
| ,, | | Italy joins Germany and Austria in the Triple Alliance (**46**). | | ,, |
| 1893. | France and Russia in agreement. Dual Alliance formed (**44**). | | | 1893. |
| 1898. | Britain reconquers the Sudan. The Fashoda crisis (**48**). | | | 1898. |
| ,, | Spanish-American War. Spain loses her colonies (**46**). | | | ,, |

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[Numbers in brackets, thus (**1**), refer to the Lessons in which the matter is dealt with.]

| Year. | Western Nations. | Central Europe and Italy. | Eastern Nations. | Year. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1898. | | Kaiser William II. visits Constantinople. Germany obtains concession for Bagdad Railway (**50**). | | 1898. |
| 1900. | | German Navy Act (**50**). | | 1900. |
| 1904. | The *Entente Cordiale* takes shape in the Anglo-French Convention (April 8) (**48**). | | | 1904. |
| 1904–5. | | | Russo-Japanese War (**44**). | 1904–5. |
| 1905. | Morocco crisis. Kaiser William II. visits Tangier (**48**). | | | 1905. |
| 1906. | | | First meeting of the Russian Duma (May 10) (**44**). | 1906. |
| 1908. | | | Revolution by Young Turks at Constantinople (**45**). | 1908. |
| ,, | | | Bosnia annexed by Austria (**41**). | ,, |
| 1911. | | Italy at war with Turkey. Conquest of Tripoli (**46**). | | 1911. |
| ,, | Second Morocco crisis. Germany sends a warship to Agadir (**48**). | | | ,, |
| 1912. | | | Balkan States attack Turkey, and capture Adrianople (1913). | 1912. |
| 1913. | | | Second Balkan War: Bulgaria defeated by her allies (**45**). | 1913. |
| 1914. | | | Murder of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand at Sarajevo (June 28) (**47**). | 1914. |
| ,, | Beginning of the Great War (August 1) (**50**). | | | ,, |

THE END.

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